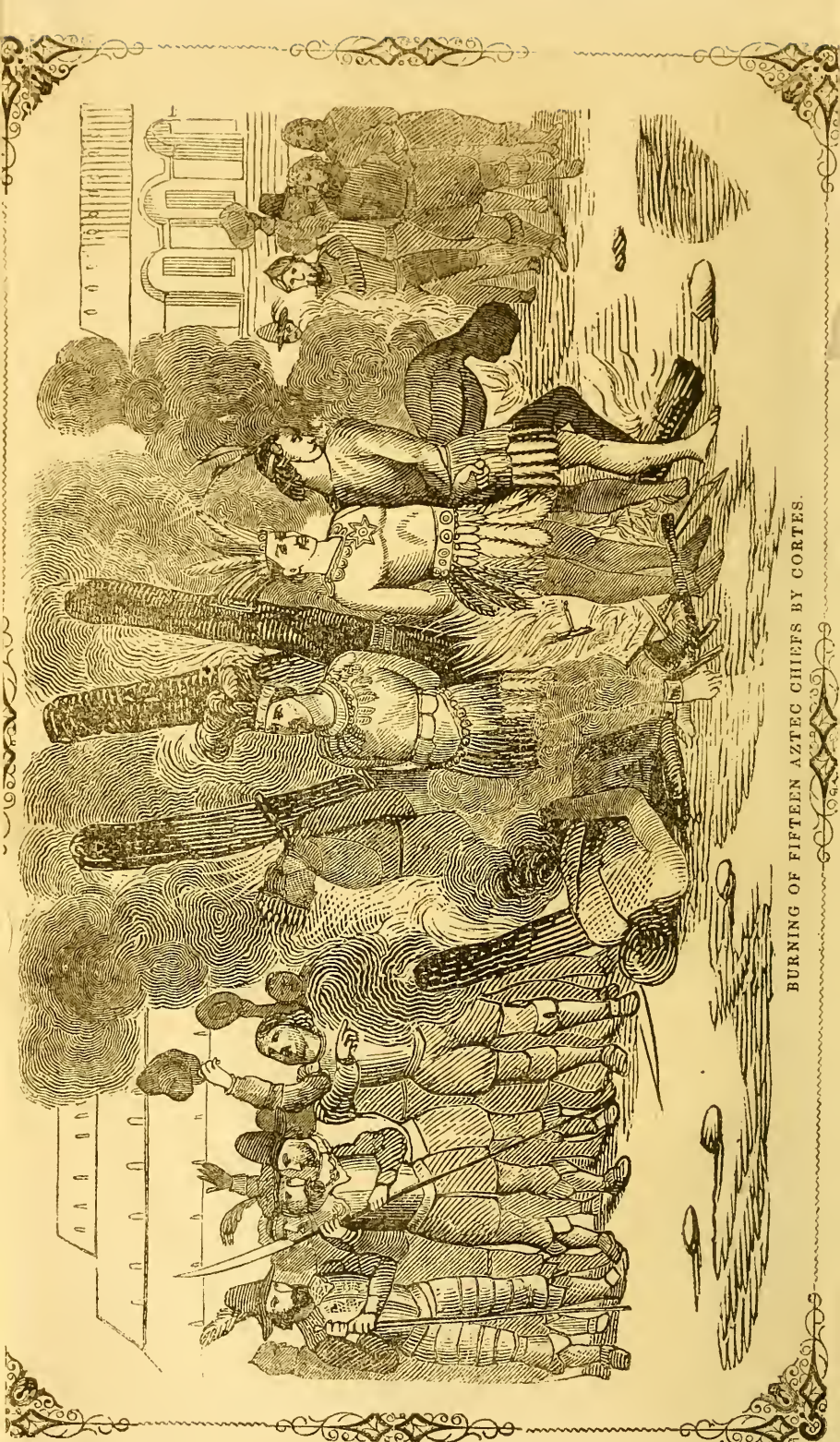


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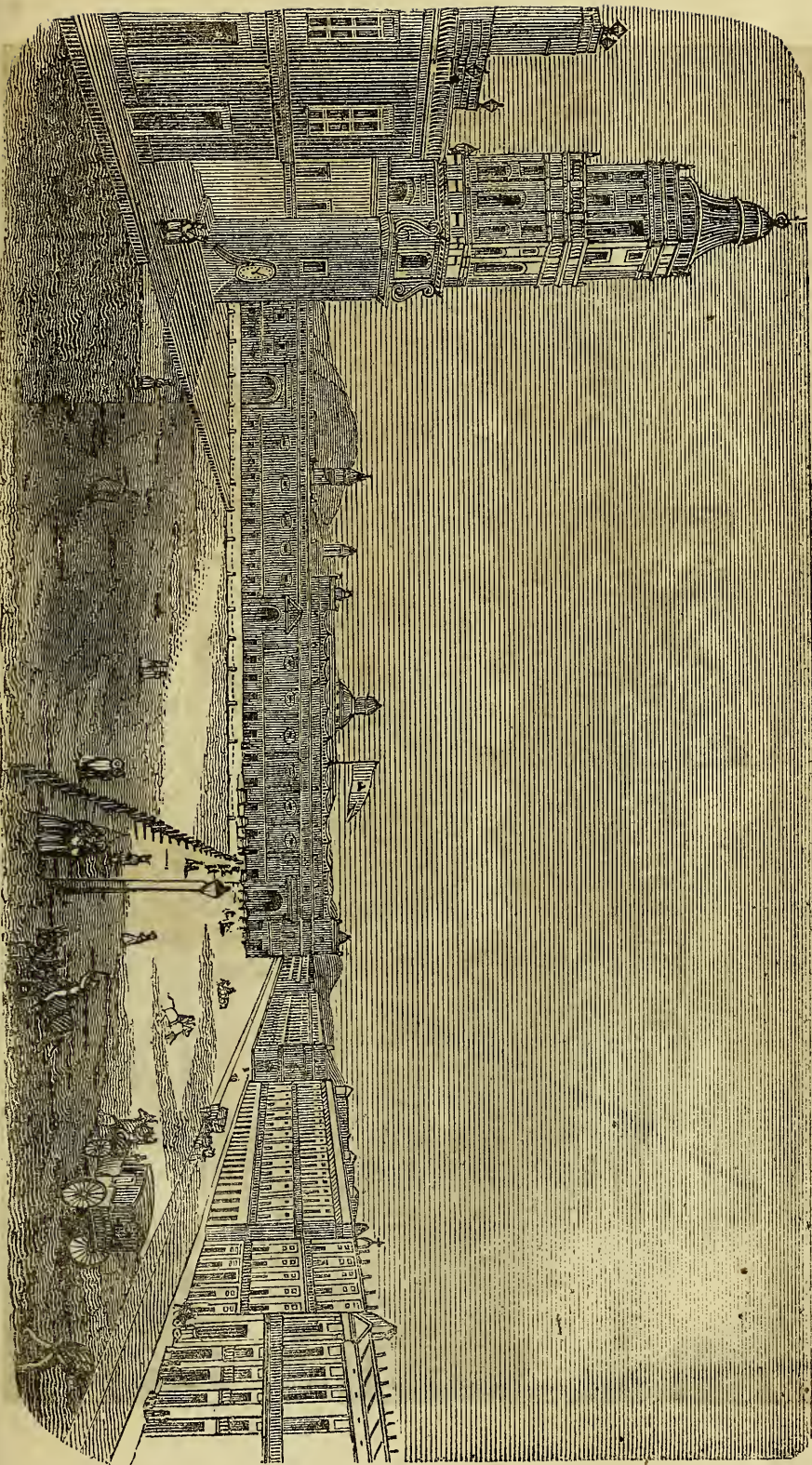
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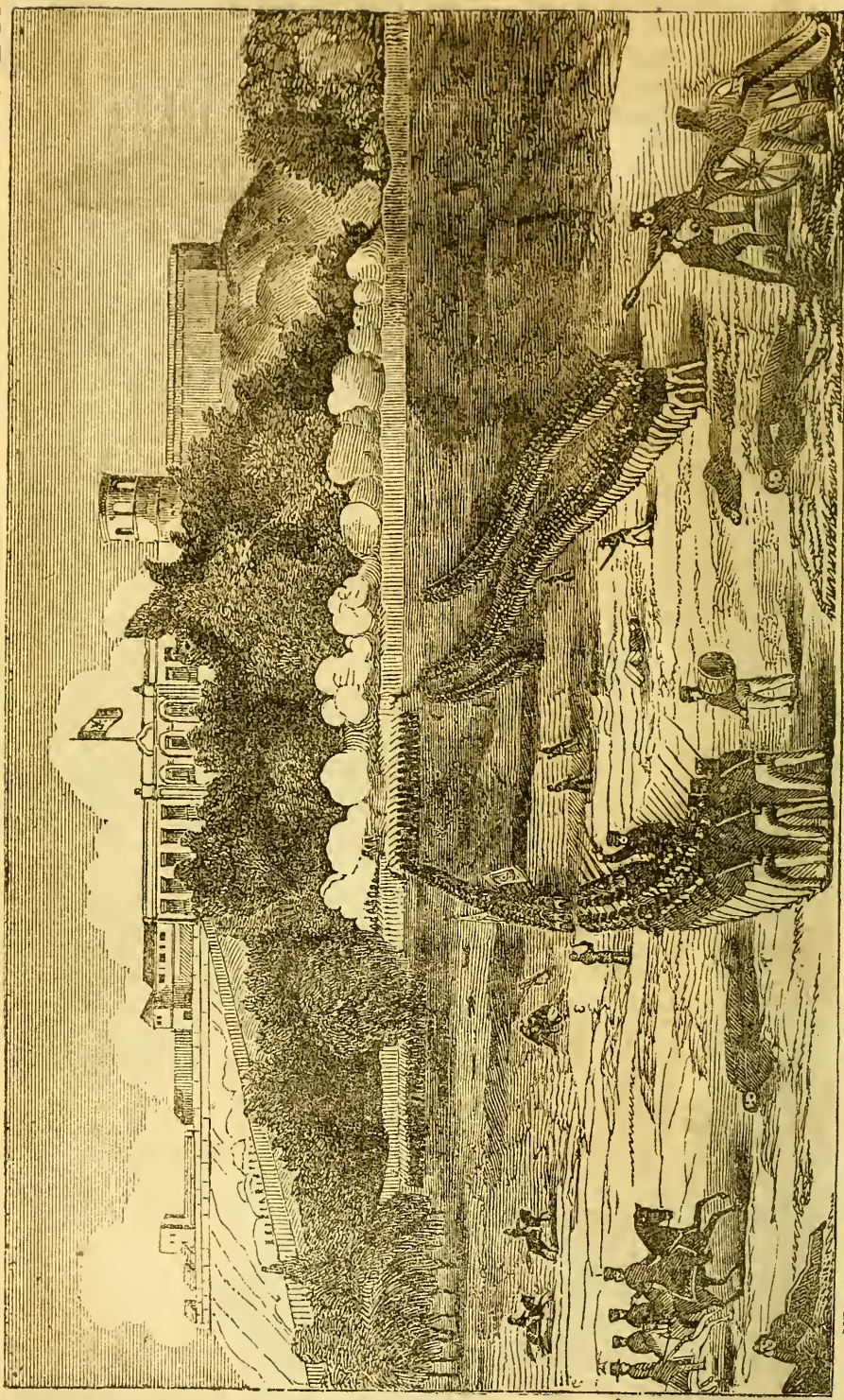




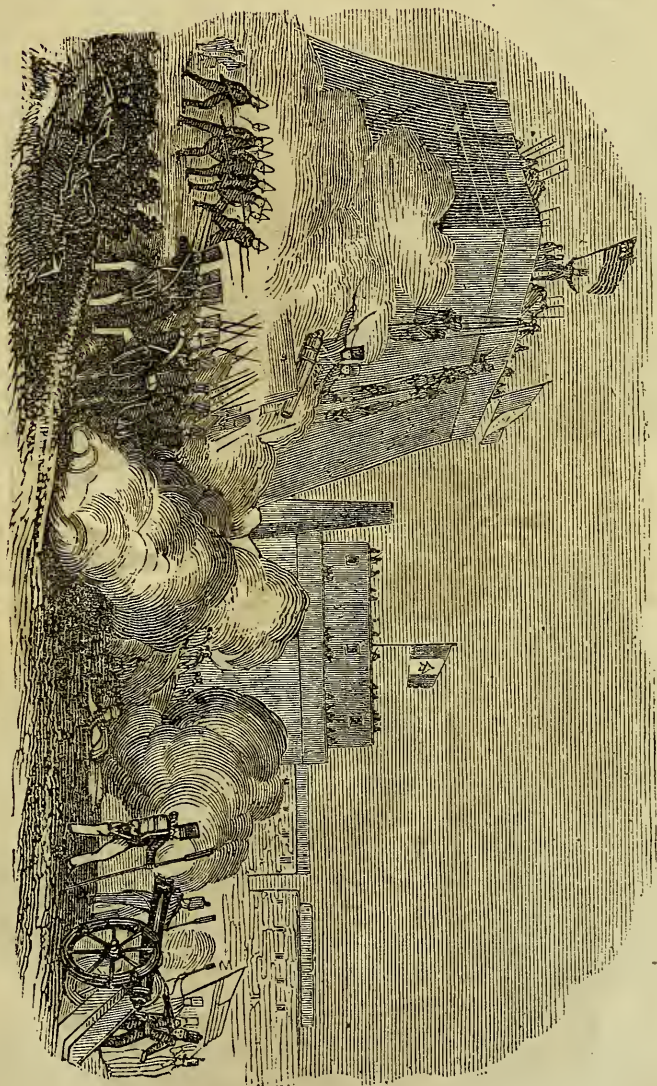
BURNING OF FIFTEEN AZTEC CHIEFS BY CORTES.

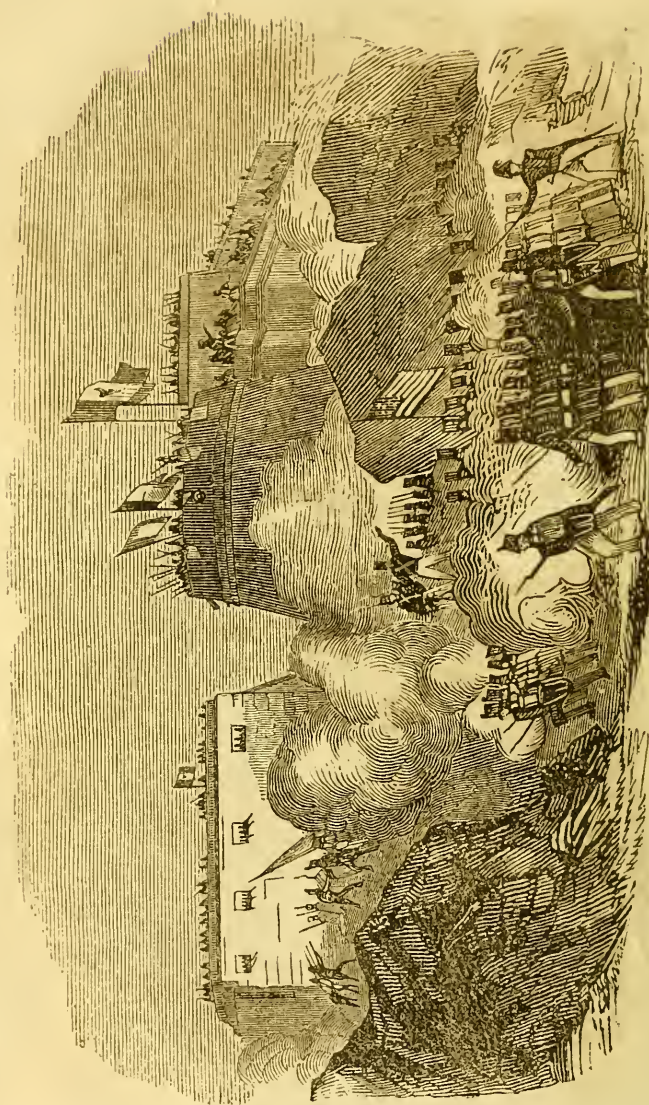
GRAND PLAZA IN THE CITY OF MEXICO





CAPTURE OF THE BISHOP'S PALACE.

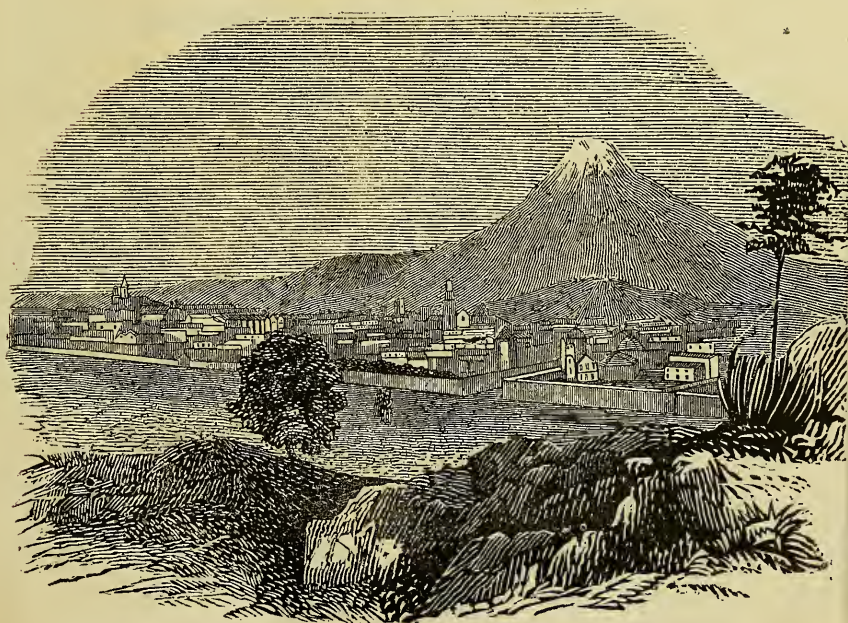




SIEGE OF MONTEREY.



CITY OF MEXICO.



NORTHERN EXTREMITY OF PUEBLA DE LOS ANGELOS.



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HALLS OF THE MONTEZUMAS:

OR,

M E X I C O ,

IN ANCIENT AND MODERN TIMES:

CONTAINING

A CONCISE HISTORY OF THE ANCIENT AND
MODERN RACES, ANTIQUITIES:

AND ESPECIALLY

ITS SPLENDID PALACES AND HALLS OF STATE:

ALSO

ITS GEOGRAPHY, GOVERNMENT, INSTITUTIONS, MINES,
MINERALS, AND CHURCHES:

TOGETHER WITH

THE CONQUEST BY CORTES AND A SKETCH OF THE LATE
WAR WITH THE UNITED STATES:

INCLUDING THE

TREATY OF PEACE.

ILLUSTRATED WITH TWENTY BEAUTIFUL ENGRAVINGS.

1837

City of Washington

NEW-YORK:

J. C. BURDICK, 162 NASSAU-ST.
1848.

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NOTICE

The Publisher respectfully intimate, that any corrections or alterations that may be suggested in regard to this work, will be gratefully received and attended to in subsequent editions.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS.

THE expression, which serves as the title of the following pages, has become proverbial, and excites vague, though pleasing ideas. Many regard those "*Halls*" as magnificent palaces, sparkling with gold and precious stones, and full of riches of every kind; indeed, they *have* almost *rivalled the splendors of ancient Babylon in her highest glory!*

As our armies have been rioting in those "*Halls*," it is time that they should be particularly described.

We have endeavored to present all which is exciting in reference to them, and at the same time give a faithful, but concise view of the ancient and modern history of the city of Mexico, and of that beautiful and charming country.

Her ancient monuments and evidences of early cultivation are truly astonishing! The conquest of the country by the hero of Spain, in accordance with the superstitious expectations of the natives, was wonderful indeed! Finally, to complete the misfortunes of that Eden of America, the triumphant arms of our soldiers have subjugated the land, and strewed its luxuriant fields with blood and death!!

In the latter part of this book we present a concise view of the Republic of Mexico, in its physical features and moral aspects. Its geography, agriculture, mines, people, military resources, government, churches, and public men, are treated in a manner thought to be the most concise and intelligible. In doing this the author has consulted all the standard authorities on the subject, and selecting there from what he has deemed true, has added the same to the knowledge which he himself has acquired by his own observation. He therefore ventures to say, that no other single work contains so full and so accurate an account of Mexico as this.

On the whole, it is hoped that this book will meet the desire of the public for information relative to the wide-spread and important regions of which it treats. Almost every thing relating to the history of that unfortunate country, is, at the present time, fraught with peculiar interest and importance to every American citizen.

THE AUTHOR.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION.

Sources of Information.

PREVIOUS to the publications of Robertson, the Scottish historian, little more was known of the Spanish American colonies than the history of their discovery and conquest. For two hundred years, with the exception of Ulloas' travels and discourses, and the narratives of Bouger and Condamine, no satisfactory intelligence had been communicated to the world relating to any of the principal Spanish settlements. But at the commencement of the present century, with the change of system adopted by the Spanish government, the scene changed. Travellers were no longer refused admittance to her colonies. In consequence, much additional information has been given to the public, by the various publications of Molina, Alcedo, Estallo, Depons, Antillon, and, above all, by Humboldt, whose work yet remains our main authority on the geography of those regions. His remarks, however, embrace only that part of Mexico which lies to the south of the 24th deg. of N. latitude. The deficiency was in some measure supplied by General Pike, of the American army, who, in 1805-7, traversed the country from Santa Fe to Chihuahua, and thence east to Louisiana.

Of late years there has been no want of writers. Of these the most credible and intelligent are the following, to all of whom are we more or less indebted for the succeeding sketches.

- Waddy Thompson's Recollections. New-York, 1846.
Gilliam's Travels in Mexico. Philadelphia, 1845.
Life in Mexico. By Madame Calderon de la Banca. 2 vols. Boston, 1843.
General Green's Texan Expedition. New-York, 1845.
Brantz Mayer's Mexico; as it Was and Is. New-York, 1842.
Prescott's History of the Conquest of Mexico. 3 vols. New-York, 1844.
Kendall's Santa Fe Expedition. 2 vols. New-York, 1844.
Bernal Diaz' History of the Conquest of Mexico. Translated by Lockhart. 2 vols. Svo. London, 1844.
Mexico in 1827. By A. G. Ward. 2 vols. London, 1828.
Latrobe's Rambler in Mexico. 2 vols. London, 1836.
Bullock's Six Months in Mexico. 2 vols. London, 1825.
Cullen's History of Mexico. 3 vols. Philadelphia, 1817.
De Solis's History of the Conquest of Mexico. 2 vols. London. 1738.
Edwards' History of Texas. 1 vol. Cincinnati, 1836.
Alexander von Humboldt's Essay on New Spain. 4 vols Svo. London, 1811.
Kennedy's Texas; its Geography, &c. New-York, 1844.
Newell's History of the Revolution in Texas. New-York, 1838.
Poinsett's Notes on Mexico. Philadelphia, 1824.
Farnham's Travels in California. Svo. New-York, 1844.
Forbes' History of California. 1 vol. London.
Life in California. 1 vol. New-York, 1846.
Texas and the Texans. 2 vols. Philadelphia, 1841.
Texan Emigrant. Cincinnati, 1838.
Mrs. Holley's Travels in Texas. Baltimore, 1830.

HALLS OF THE MONTEZUMAS.

CHAPTER I.

FOUNDING OF THE "HALLS."

To ascertain their origin, we must go back far into antiquity. They must have been founded by the sovereigns, from whom they received their name.

Who then were the Montezumas?

They were emperors of Mexico in ancient times. One of them was upon the throne, when Cortes invaded the country, a little more than two centuries ago, in 1519.

The origin and history of these monarchs, we shall briefly narrate in the course of this work.

They were of the Aztec race, concerning whose origin, there are various opinions among the learned.

Situation of the Country.

It seems that the country of the ancient Mexicans, or Aztecs, included but a small part of what is now called Mexico. At first, its limits were circumscribed, but in the latter days of the Empire, it was greatly extended. The exact limits cannot be ascertained with certainty. When largest, the country was probably about twice the size of New England. It was so situated, however, that its inhabitants enjoyed every variety of climate, and feasted on the fruits of the equator and arctic circle. This was caused by the different degrees of elevation. In some places on the coast, it is sickly, and hundreds are annually destroyed by the *vomito*; but generally the country is healthy, and on the whole, presents some of the loveliest rural scenery which can be found upon the globe. The table lands, in the time of the Aztecs, were covered with enormous oak, birch, cypress, and other forest trees, not to be compared with those of modern times, as their remnants show to this day. The celebrated Valley of Mexico is situated nearly seven thousand eight hundred feet above the level of the ocean, is about twelve miles in circumference, is surrounded by a lofty rampart of porphyry, and five beautiful lakes cover one-tenth of its surface.*

* See page —

CHAPTER II.

THE TOLTECS.

This people came from unknown regions of the North and entered the territory of Anahuac,* before the close of the seventh century. Their written records have perished and are only known to us by the traditional legends of the nations that succeeded them. The Toltecs understood agriculture, many useful mechanic arts, were nice workers in metals, invented the ingenious method of keeping time used by the Aztecs, and were the foundation of later civilization on that part of the continent.

Ancient Ruins.

They had a magnificent capital at Tula, north of the Mexican Valley, and when the Spaniards conquered the country, ruins of spacious buildings were to be seen.

In various parts of New Spain, there are ruins of costly, religious and other edifices, probably erected by this people.

After a period of four centuries, as Ixtlilxochitl, a distinguished Mexican historian, informs us, the nation, having become greatly reduced by famine, pestilence, and war, disappeared from the land as silently and mysteriously as they had entered it. Most of them probably went to Central America and the neighboring islands, though some few remained in Anahuac. The splendid ruins of Mitla and Palenque are considered as the work of this remarkable people.

THE CHICHEMECS.

Near the close of the twelfth century, a numerous and rude tribe, called the Chichimecs, came into the country from the North Western wilds. They were followed by other tribes more civilized. It is probable that they had a similar origin to the Toltecs, whose language they spoke. The most distinguished of these were the Aztecs or Mexicans and the Acolhuans.

THE ACOLHUANS OR TEZCUCANS.

The last are better known by the name of Tezcucans, from their capital, Tezcuco,† situated on the eastern border of the Mexican lake. They had a mild religion, their manners were not very rude, and they were easily influenced by the civilization of the few Toltecs that remained in the country. The Tezcucans, in turn, exerted a great influence upon the Chichimecs and they finally became united with the new settlers into one nation.

The Acolhuans, or Tezcucans, extended their empire, at length, over the ruder tribes in the North and their capital was the centre of refine-

* Anahuac, signifies *near the water*, and was probably first applied to the country around the lakes, in the Mexican Valley, and gradually extended to more remote regions occupied by the Aztecs.

† Tezcuco, means *place of detention*, as several of the tribes who came into the country stopped awhile, at this place.

ment in those regions. While they were enjoying this peaceful, cultivated state, they were suddenly attacked by the warlike Tepanecs, who were their own kindred, and inhabited the same valley. Their luxuriant fields were desecrated, their dwellings destroyed, their splendid capital laid in ruins, and their richest blood spilled by cruel war! Their king was assassinated and they were obliged to submit to the blood-thirsty victors. By means of the remarkable abilities of the heir to the crown, Nezahualcoyotl, the country was soon restored to its former prosperity.

CHAPTER III.

ANECDOTES OF NEZAHUALCOYOTL.

MR. PRESCOTT relates the following anecdotes:—

The King devoured his chagrin in the solitude of his beautiful villa of Tezcotzinco, or sought to divert it by travelling. On one of his journeys he was hospitably entertained by a potent vassal, the old lord of Tepechpan, who, to do his sovereign more honor, caused him to be attended at the banquet by a noble maiden, betrothed to himself, and who, after the fashion of the country, had been educated under his own roof. She was of the blood royal of Mexico, and nearly related, moreover, to the Tezcucan monarch. The latter, who had all the amorous temperament of the South, was captivated by the grace and personal charms of the youthful Hebe, and conceived a violent passion for her. He did not disclose it to any one, however, but, on his return home, resolved to gratify it, though at the expense of his own honor, by sweeping away the only obstacle in his path. He accordingly sent an order to the chief of Tepechpan to take command of an expedition set on foot against the Tlascalans. At the same time he instructed two Tezcucan chiefs to keep near the person of the old lord, and bring him into the thickest of the fight, where he might lose his life. He assured them, this had been forfeited by a great crime, but that, from regard for his vassal's past services, he was willing to cover up his disgrace by an honorable death. The veteran, who had long lived in retirement on his estates, saw himself, with astonishment, called so suddenly and needlessly into action, for which so many younger men were better fitted. He suspected the cause, and in the farewell entertainment to his friends, uttered a presentiment of his sad destiny. His predictions were too soon verified: and a few weeks placed the hand of his virgin bride at his own disposal. Nezahualcoyotl did not think it prudent to break his passion publicly to the princess, so soon after the death of his victim. He opened a correspondence with her through a female relative, and expressed his deep sympathy for her loss. At the same time, he tendered the best consolation in his power, by an offer of his heart and hand. Her former lover had been too well stricken in years for the maiden to remain long inconsolable. She was not aware of the perfidious plot against his life; and, after a decent time, she was ready to comply with her duty, by placing herself at the disposal of her royal kinsman. It was arranged by the king, in order to give a more natural aspect to the affair, and prevent all suspicion of the unworthy part he had acted, that the princess should present herself in his grounds at Tez-

cotzínco to witness some public ceremony there. Nezahualcoyotl was standing in a balcony of the palace, when she appeared, and inquired, as if struck with her beauty for the first time, "who the lovely young creature was, in his gardens." When his courtiers had acquainted him with her name and rank, he ordered her to be conducted to the palace, that she might receive the attentions due to her station. The interview was soon followed by a public declaration of his passion; and the marriage was celebrated not long after, with great pomp, in the presence of his court, and his brother monarchs of Mexico and Tlacopan.*

This story, which furnishes so obvious a counterpart to that of David and Uriah, is told with great circumstantiality, both by the king's son and grandson, from whose narratives Ixtlilxochitl gives it.† They stigmatize the action as the basest in their great ancestor's life. It is indeed too base not to leave an indelible stain on any character, however pure in other respects, and exalted. The king was strict in the execution of his laws, though his natural disposition led him to temper justice with mercy. Many anecdotes are told of the benevolent interest he took in the concerns of his subjects, and of his anxiety to detect and reward merit, even in the most humble. It was common for him to ramble among them in disguise, like the celebrated caliph in the "Arabian Nights," mingling freely in conversation, and ascertaining their actual condition with his own eyes.

On one occasion, when attended by only a single lord, he met a boy who was gathering sticks in a field, for fuel. He inquired of him why he did not go into the neighboring forest where he would find a plenty of them. To which the lad answered, "It was the king's wood, and he would punish him with death if he trespassed there." The royal forests were very extensive in Tezcucó, and were guarded by laws full as severe as those of the Norman tyrants in England. "What kind of a man is your king?" asked the monarch, willing to learn the effect of these prohibitions on his own popularity. "A very hard man," answered the boy, "who denies his people what God has given them." Nezahualcoyotl urged him not to mind such arbitrary laws, but to glean his sticks in the forest, as there was no one present who would betray him. But the boy sturdily refused, bluntly accusing the disguised king, at the same time, of being a traitor, and of wishing to bring him into trouble.

Nezahualcoyotl, on returning to his palace, ordered the child and his parents to be summoned before him. They received the orders with astonishment, but, on entering his presence, the boy, at once, recognized the person with whom he had conversed so unceremoniously, and he was filled with consternation. The good-natured monarch, however, relieved his apprehensions, by thanking him for the lesson he had given him, and at the same time, commended his respect for the laws, and praised his parents for the manner in which they had trained their son. He then dismissed the parties with a liberal largess, and afterwards mitigated the severity of the forest laws, so as to allow persons to gather any wood they might find on the ground, if they did not meddle with the standing timber.

Another adventure is told of him, with a poor woodman and wife, who had brought their little load of billets for sale to the market of Tezcucó. The man was bitterly lamenting his hard lot, and the difficulty with which he earned a scanty subsistence, while the master of the palace, before whom they were standing, lived an idle life, without toil, and with all the luxuries of the world at his command.

* Hist. Chich., MS., cap. 43.

† Idem, ubi supra.

He was going on in his complaints, when the good woman stopped him, by reminding him he might be overheard. He was so, by Nezahualcoyotl himself, who, standing screened from observation, at a latticed window, which overlooked the market, was amusing himself, as he was wont, with observing the common people chaffing in the square. He immediately ordered the querulous couple into his presence. They appeared trembling and conscience-struck before him. The king gravely inquired what they had said. As they answered him truly, they should reflect, that if he had great treasures at his command, he had still greater calls for them; that, far from leading an easy life, he was oppressed with the whole burden of government; and concluded, by admonishing them, to be more cautious in future, as walls had ears. He then ordered his officers to bring a quantity of cloth, and a generous supply of cacao (the coin of the country) and dismissed them. "Go," said he, "with the little you now have, you will be rich; while with all my riches I shall be poor."

It was not his passion to hoard. He dispensed his revenues munificently, seeking out poor but meritorious objects on whom to bestow them. He was particularly mindful of disabled soldiers, and those who had in any way sustained loss in the public service; and, in case of their death, extended assistance to their surviving families. Open mendicity was a thing he would never tolerate, but chastised it with exemplary rigor.

CHAPTER IV.

THE AZTECS OR MEXICANS.

This race came from the remote regions of the North and arrived upon the borders of Anahuac near the commencement of the thirteenth century. For a long time they led a migratory life, moving from one place to another in the great Mexican Valley. They were once enslaved by a foreign tribe; but they were so warlike that their masters were afraid of them.

Finally they settled upon the southwestern borders of the principal lake, in 1325.

Founding of the City of Mexico.

They saw, one day, on the stem of a prickly pear, which sprung from the crevice of a rock, washed by the dashing billows, a royal eagle of immense size and beauty with a serpent in his talons, and his wings opened to the rising sun. They hailed this as a favorable omen, and decided to build their city of Mexico upon that spot. They sunk piles in the shallows for its foundation, and on these, at first, erected light fabrics of reeds and rushes. The place was called Tenochtitlan (signifying, *tunal* [a cactus] *on a stone*) in token of its singular origin. It was known to Europeans, however, by its other name, Mexico, derived from their war-god Mexitli.

The legend of its foundation is still commemorated by the device of the eagle and cactus, which form the arms of the Mexican Republic.

The learned Mexican historian, Clarigero, says that the Toltecs arrived at Anahuac A. D.	648
They left the country	1051
The Chichimecs arrived	1170
The Acolhuans arrived about	1200
The Mexicans reached Tula	1196
They founded Mexico	1325

Formation of the Empire.

The Aztecs distinguished themselves for bravery, and soon became terrible to the other tribes of the Valley. Finally, after much fighting between tribes, a remarkable league was formed, which is unparalleled in history. The states of Mexico, Tezcuco, and Tlacopan, agreed that they would mutually support each other in all of their wars offensive and defensive, that Tlacopan was to have one-fifth of the spoils, and the remainder divided between the other two states. Thus a powerful empire was formed.

The fact should make civilized nations blush, that during a century of continual war, there was never an instance in which the parties quarrelled over the division of spoils.

These powers soon crossed the mountains of porphyry, which limited their valley, and, by the middle of the fifteenth century, under the first Montezuma, they had extended their authority down to the Gulf of Mexico.

The frail tenements of Tenochtitlan were soon supplanted by elegant buildings, the tribes gradually united, and by the commencement of the sixteenth century, just before the Spaniards came to desolate the country, the Aztec dominion had extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Under their bold leader, Ahuitzotl, they carried their arms into the remotest regions of Guatemala and Nicaragua.

The Aztecs were certainly an energetic and brave people, to extend their dominions, in so short a time, over the numerous warlike races of so large a tract of country. They seem to have resembled, in some respects, the ancient Romans.

The Government of the Aztecs.

The government of the Aztecs and Tezcucans was monarchical and nearly absolute. It was an elective and yet hereditary monarchy. At the decease of the sovereign, four of the principal nobles, as electors, chose one of the brothers or nephews of the deceased prince, to fill that high station. At the coronation the blood of captives freely flowed, to grace the triumphal entry of the prince into the capital.

Immense "Halls" of State.

Towards the close of the dynasty, particularly, the Aztec emperors lived in great splendor. In their palaces they had immense "*Halls*," elegantly decorated, where the monarch and his courtiers attended to the affairs of state. In the royal buildings there were also accommodations for a large body guard. The nobility were very powerful, many of them being immense landholders. They could muster (some writers say) each a hun-

dred thousand vassals on their estates. The monarch, however, was supreme, and there was no appeal from his sentence. When a capital one was given there was a great parade. Says the national chronicler, in describing the ceremony, at Tezcuco: "In the royal palace of Tezcuco was a court-yard, on the opposite sides of which were two halls of justice.

"Hall of the Tribunal of God."

"In the principal one, called the 'Tribunal of God,' was a throne of pure gold, inlaid with turquoises and other precious stones. On a stool in front, was placed a human skull, crowned with an immense emerald, of a pyramidal form, and surrounded by an aigrette of brilliant plumes and precious stones. The skull was laid on a heap of military weapons, shields, quivers, bows, and arrows. The walls were hung with tapestry, made of the hair of different wild animals, of rich and various colors, festooned by gold rings, and embroidered with figures of birds and flowers. Above the throne was a canopy of variegated plumage, from the centre of which shot forth resplendent rays of gold and jewels.

"Hall" of the King's Tribunal.

"The other tribunal, called the 'King's,' was also surrounded by a gorgeous canopy of feathers, on which were emblazoned the royal arms. Here the sovereign gave public audience, and communicated his dispatches. But when he decided important causes, or confirmed a capital sentence, he passed to the tribunal of God, attended by fourteen great lords of the realm, marshalled according to their rank. Then putting on his mitred crown, incrustated with precious stones, and holding a golden arrow, for a sceptre, in his left hand, he laid his right upon the skull, and pronounced judgment."

It is no wonder that our soldiers were desirous to revel in such "Halls" as are here described.

All of the cities were obliged to pay tribute and fill the national "*Halls*" with all kinds of riches, such as cotton dresses; mantles of feather-work, richly wrought; ornamented armor; vases and plates of gold; gold dust; bands and bracelets; crystal, gilt, and varnished jars and goblets; bells, arms, and utensils of copper; reams of paper; grain, fruits, copal, amber, cochineal, cacao, wild animals and birds, timber, lime, mats, golden diadems, lip jewels of amber ornamented with gold, rich scarlet feathers, tiger skins, and numerous other things. Thus the monarch and his lords were surrounded with every luxury and immense wealth.

When any important event occurred news of it was sent by couriers very rapidly over the country. Fresh fish, caught in the Gulf of Mexico, were frequently served at Montezuma's table, a distance of two hundred miles, in twenty-four hours from the time they were taken from the water.

Armor and Dress of Warriors.

The dress of the more important warriors was showy and rich. Some of the chiefs wore cuirasses of gold and silver, and over them a surcoat of gorgeous feather-work. Their helmets were frequently made of silver in the shape of the head of some wild animal, on the top of which waved a panache of variegated plumes, sprinkled with precious stones and orna-

ments of gold. These warriors were also adorned with golden collars, bracelets, and ear-rings.

"Their mail, if mail it may be called, was woven
Of vegetable down, like finest flax,
Bleached to the whiteness of new-fallen snow.
Others, of higher office, were arrayed
In feathery breast-plates, of more gorgeous hue
Than the gay plumage of the mountain cock,
Than the pheasant's glittering pride. But what were these,
Or what the thin, gold hauberk, when opposed
To arms like ours in battle?"*

The national standard was embroidered with gold and feather work. The different companies with their chiefs had banners and plumes of different colors, so that their armies, marching to battle, made a brilliant appearance. They rushed on to the attack with great ferocity, singing and shouting their war cries. They did not seek to kill their enemies, but to take them prisoners.

Evidences of Civilization.

There are indubitable evidences that the ancient Aztecs or Mexicans were considerably advanced in the arts of civilization, nearly as much so as our Saxon ancestors under king Alfred. Their cultivation was very similar to that of the ancient Egyptians. If it be asked why the modern Mexicans do not manifest the same energy and enlightened policy, we answer. They are a conquered race. They have been crushed by oppressors, and rent by factions until they are entirely a different people from their noble ancestors.

CHAPTER V.

"HALLS" OF THE TEZCUCANS.

THE "Halls" of Prince Nezahualcoyotl, in the city of Tezcuco, were almost as splendid as those of the Montezumas. The Prince filled the city with palaces for his nobles. The building, containing his "Halls" of State, extended from east to west 3,670 feet, and from north to south 2,934 feet. It was surrounded by a wall six feet wide and nine high for one-half of the circumference and fifteen feet high for the other half. There were two courts, the outer one of which was used for a public market even till after the conquest, if not until the present time. The interior court was surrounded by the council chambers and "Halls" of justice. Here were spacious apartments for foreign ambassadors, elegant saloons under the marble portico, for poets and men of science. Here were the public archives and, near by, the apartments of the king and the royal harem. The walls were incrustured with alabaster and richly tinted stucco, or hung with costly tapestries of variegated feather-work.

* Madoc, P. 1, Canto 7.

These splendid walls led through long arcades and intricate labyrinth of shrubbery, into beautiful gardens, where tall groves of cedar and cypress trees overshadowed baths and sparkling fountains. Fish of various kinds were seen jumping, in the basins of water, and birds of every plumage raising their sweet notes, on every side.

When the Montezumas and other monarchs visited this palace, they were received in princely style. In this whole building, there were 300 rooms, and some of them 150 feet square. It is said that 200,000 workmen were employed in building it.

Immense ruins are now to be seen of the once magnificent capital.

Palace, and Hanging Gardens of Tezcotzinco.

The king's favorite residence was at Tezcotzinco, a conical hill, six miles from his capital. It was laid out in terraces or hanging gardens, having a flight of 500 steps hewn in natural porphyry. On the summit was a reservoir of water, brought many miles on huge buttresses. In the centre of this reservoir was a rock, on which was sculptured in hieroglyphics, the achievements of Nezahualcoyotl. On a lower level were three other reservoirs, in each of which stood a marble statue of a woman, emblematic of the three states of the empire. Another tank contained a winged lion, cut from the solid rock, having in his mouth the portrait of the emperor. The water was distributed in numerous channels through the gardens, or tumbled over rocks, forming beautiful cascades and shedding refreshing dews on the flowers below. Here are exhibited to this day the baths of Montezuma, cut from the solid rock.

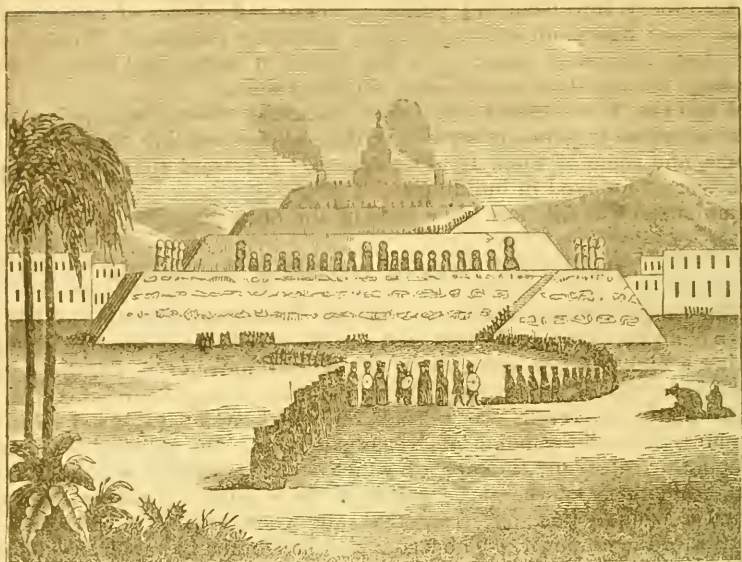
Near the bottom of the hill, rose the royal villa, in the midst of towering and shady cypress trees, with its light arcades and airy "Halls," where the emperor could drink in the sweet perfumes from the gardens.

Religious Views and Death of Nezahualcoyotl.

Nezahualcoyotl lost his confidence in idols, and said "these idols of wood and stone can neither hear nor feel; much less could they make the heavens, and the earth and man, the lord of it. These must be the work of the All-powerful, unknown God, Creator of the universe, on whom alone I must rely for consolation and support."* He endeavored to persuade his subjects to forsake their superstitions. He built a temple in the usual pyramidal form and on the top a tower, nine stories high, to represent the nine heavens. The tenth story was surmounted by a roof painted black and gilded with stars on the outside and incrustated with metals and precious stones within. He dedicated this to "*the unknown God, the Cause of causes.*" About 1470 this monarch gave up the ghost, in the seventy-third year of his age and the forty-third of his reign.

Could the comforts of true religion have been presented to him, he would probably have embraced them cordially.

* M. S. de Ixtlilxochitl.



TEMPLE OF THE SUN.

CHAPTER VI.

TEMPLES AND RELIGIOUS RITES OF THE AZTECS.

THE Aztecs had numerous religious temples in every city. Some of them were very large and extensive, having many altars near them.

Temple of the Sun.

Within the enclosure of the great temple of Mexico there were said to be six hundred altars.

When it was consecrated nearly 60,000 human beings were sacrificed. It was built about 1480 by the immediate predecessor of Montezuma. Its frowning battlements, wide terraces, and flights of steps were almost constantly covered with the blood of human victims.

This stately edifice occupied the large tract of land where now stands the Cathedral, part of the market place, and some of the adjoining streets. It stood in the midst of a vast area, surrounded by a wall of stone and lime, eight feet high, ornamented on the outer side by figures of serpents, raised in relief, which gave it the name of *coatepantli*, or "wall of serpents." The wall was quadrangular, pierced by huge battlement gateways, opening on the four principal streets of the capital. The temple itself was a solid pyramidal structure of earth and pebbles, coated on the outside with hewn stones. It was square, facing the cardinal points, and

five stories high, each story diminishing in size. The ascent was by a flight of steps on the outside, which reached to the narrow terrace or platform at the base of the second story, passing round the building. Thus by a winding stairway the top was reached by passing round the structure four times.

It is thought that the temple was 300 feet square at the base, and about 100 feet high. The top was a vast area paved with broad flat stones. There was a large block of jasper on which the bodies of the victims were stretched for sacrifice. At the other end of the area were two towers or sanctuaries, three stories high, in which were placed the images of their gods, sacred utensils, and the ashes of some of their kings. Lights were here kept continually burning. Here also was the huge cylindrical drum, made of serpents' skins, and struck only on important occasions, and could be heard for miles.

Human Sacrifices.

Early in the fourteenth century they began the wicked and barbarous custom of appeasing the anger of their gods by human sacrifices. At first they were few, but soon were very frequent, occurring at almost every festival.

One of their most important festivals was that in honor of the god Tezcatlipoca. A year before the intended sacrifice, a captive, remarkable for beauty and without a blemish on his body, was selected, instructed in the mysteries, splendidly dressed, and surrounded with flowers and incense. He was honored as a representative of the god, was allowed four beautiful girls for his use, and feasted at the banquets of the nobles, who worshipped him. When the fatal day arrived, he was stripped of his rich apparel, and bid adieu to his friends. A royal barge carried him across the lake to a temple on its margin, three miles from the city. The people flocked around to see the sacrifice. As the victim ascended the pyramid he threw away his flowers and broke in pieces his musical instruments. At the top he was received by six priests, with their long and matted locks and mystic, hieroglyphical robes. They led him to the jasper stone of sacrifice. On this the captive was stretched and five priests secured his head and limbs, and the sixth, clad in a scarlet mantle, opened his breast with a sharp razor of *itztli* (a volcanic substance hard as flint), and inserting his hand in the wound tore out his palpitating heart, held it up to the sun, and then threw it at the feet of the deity of the temple.

It would seem that such heaven-daring practices would bring down the vengeance of an incensed God upon the nation. Sometimes children and even females were thus sacrificed. As they were led along to the place of execution their terrible cries and tears excited the pity of the most hard-hearted, while the diabolical priests (for they must have known better), chanted aloud to drown the cries of their victims. Finally, to close this infernal scene, the body of the person sacrificed was given up to the person who took him captive, and being cooked, was served in an entertainment to his friends!

From 20,000 to 50,000 were annually sacrificed throughout the country.

How surprising that such an enlightened and civilized people should adopt a custom so barbarous!

How they needed the genial influence of Christianity! But this barbarity did not equal that practised by the Inquisition in Spain, by a professedly civilized, refined, and Christian people!

These sacrifices had a ruinous effect upon the character of the Aztec race. They lost human sympathy and sunk down into a melancholy aspect, bound down by the tyranny of a cruel, relentless superstition.

This singular people had considerable knowledge of arithmetic, chronology, astronomy, agriculture, and mechanics. They understood the principles of trade, and had something of refinement in their manners.



FERNANDO DE CORTES.

CHAPTER VII.

DISCOVERY OF MEXICO BY THE SPANIARDS.

Thus beautiful country was early discovered and coveted by the Spaniards. Hernandez de Cordova sailed from Cuba, February 8, 1517, on an expedition to some of the Bahama islands, and was blown, by adverse winds, upon the coast of the New World. He proceeded as far as Campeachy, and then returned to Cuba. May 1, 1518, a fleet sailed from St. Jago de Cuba to make discoveries, under Juan de Grijalva. He penetrated farther than his predecessor, and touched at San Juan de Uloa and

at the Isla de los Sacrificio, so named by him from the bloody remains of human victims found in one of the temples. He is the navigator who first stepped upon Mexican soil and opened a communication with the Aztecs. He received splendid presents of gold and silver, which were supposed to be sent by the emperor. This caused another fleet to be fitted out, commanded by Fernando de Cortés. It sailed February 18, 1519, for the coast of Yucatan.

Battle of Tabasco.

Cortés passed up the river Rio de Tabasco early in March. Here he was opposed by a large number of the natives, with bows and arrows, and various implements of warfare. Cortés asked permission to land; but the Indians brandished their weapons and answered only by gestures of angry defiance. Cortés withdrew, and prepared for an attack in the morning. He landed a detachment of one hundred men, under Alonso de Avila, lower down the stream, and ordered them to march to Tabasco and attack it, while he would advance in front. He sent a proclamation to the natives, stating that he only wished a peaceable passage to Tabasco and that if blood was shed *they* would be to blame. It is a matter of course, that all generals or nations, who commence a war, justify themselves whether right or wrong. It was very unjust and cruel for Cortés thus to force his way through the country by slaughtering thousands of the innocent inhabitants. Indeed, his whole errand was one of robbery and outrage.

The Spanish general's proclamation was answered only by menaces and a volley of arrows. Cortés brought his boats alongside of the Indian canoes. They grappled fiercely together, and both parties were soon in the water, fighting; but the Europeans drove the natives back to the shore. Large numbers of the natives lined the banks of the river, and threw darts and billets of wood upon the invaders, aiming their blows especially at the leader. The Spaniards soon gained the bank, and their fire-arms caused the enemy to retire towards the town. Then Avila came up from the opposite quarter, and the natives yielded. Cortés proceeded into the town and encamped in the court of the temple.

In the morning, going out of the town, he was attacked again by the natives and came near being overcome by them; but finally the Tabascans were forced to retire.

Battle of Ceutla.

Cortés ascertained that the country was in arms, and that the natives were determined to exterminate the invaders; but he had engaged with the enemy and must surmount all obstacles, or give up at once. He sent back to the vessel those who were disabled by their wounds, and ordered the remaining forces to join the camp. Six of the heavy guns and all the horses were taken from the vessels. Mesa commanded the artillery, Diego de Ordaz led on the infantry, and Cortés took charge of the cavalry, the most distinguished of whom were Alvarado, Velasquez de Leon, Avila, Puertocarrero, Olid, and Montejo.

At break of day, the Spaniards, though few in number, sallied out of the town to meet the enemy. They were encamped on the plain of Ceutla.

Ordaz was ordered to attack them in front, and Cortés was to pass round and attack them in the rear. The troops advanced more than a league before they saw the enemy. Finally, they saw immense numbers of them, who soon commenced their hideous war-cries, which were followed by volleys of arrows, stones, and other missiles. Many of the Spaniards were severely wounded before they could prepare their guns to open upon the enemy. At last they poured a destructive fire into their thick masses, and mowed down the poor creatures in a dreadful manner, but the natives, undismayed, fought desperately and pressed upon the Spaniards so closely, that they had scarcely room to work their guns. This was a critical time for the little band of invaders. They looked for the arrival of the horse under Cortés. Finally they observed confusion in the farthest ranks of the enemy, which soon spread through all of the masses. It was not long before the shout of "*San Jago*," and "*San Pedro*!" was heard, and Cortés, with his brave companions, dashed through the ranks of the enemy spreading dismay in every direction.

The natives supposed that the horse and rider were both one being, and were exceedingly terrified. Many of them threw down their arms and fled without attempting farther resistance.

The number of Indians engaged in this battle, is supposed to have been about 40,000. Several prisoners were taken by the Spaniards, and among them two chiefs. Cortés gave them their liberty, and told them to inform their countrymen that he would put man, woman, and child to the sword unless they immediately submitted to him. They soon sent in their submission, and a friendly relation was formed, and presents made on both sides. The natives presented some golden ornaments to the Spaniards, and, on being asked where they obtained them, they pointed to the west and answered "*Culhua*," "*Mexico*."

The Spaniards formed a solemn procession, before leaving, with which many Indians united, marched round the principal temple, pulled down the heathen god and erected the image of the Virgin with the infant Savior. The Spaniards endeavored to convert the natives to the Christian faith, after having killed as many of them as they could! Out upon such Christianity! It is worse than heathenism. After these ceremonies, the Spaniards returned to their ships and sailed for the city of Mexico.

CHAPTER VIII.

LANDING OF CORTES AT VERA CRUZ.

THE Spaniards landed at the island of *San Juan de Uloa* (so named by the Spaniard Grijalva). Crowds of the natives soon came down to the water, shot off in boats from the continent, and came on board the Spanish vessels, in a friendly manner. Cortés learned, by an interpreter, that they were subjects of the great Mexican Empire, a country ruled by a powerful monarch, called *Moctheuzoma*, or, as the Europeans pronounce it, *Montezuma*. He resided on the mountain plains of the interior, more than two hundred miles from the coast.



MONTEZUMA.

April 21, 1519, the Spaniards landed at what is now called Vera Cruz, and formed a tent. Multitudes of the natives flocked in, bringing gold trinkets and presents of various kinds. Finally the governor (whose name was Teuhtlile) with a large train, visited the camp and asked Cortés for what purpose he had come across the waters? Cortés answered, that he was sent by a powerful monarch as an ambassador to Montezuma and asked when he could see him. Teuhtlile, in a haughty manner, replied, "How is it, that you, have been here only two days, and demand to see the Emperor?" He said, however, that he would send to the Emperor and see whether he would admit him into his presence. His slaves then brought in splendid presents of wrought gold and beautiful feather-work. The cavalry, the ships, and especially the sound of the trumpets and roaring of cannon, astonished the Mexicans, and even made the governor tremble as he retired from the Spanish camp.

Much wonder was excited at the capital on account of these strangers. The Aztec throne was filled, at this time, by Montezuma the Second, nephew of the last, and grand-son of the preceding monarch. He was elected, according to Prescott, to the regal dignity in 1502, in preference to his brothers, on account of his superior endowments as a soldier and a priest. His name, Montezuma (meaning "sad or severe man"), was appropriate to his character. He received the announcement of his election to the throne with humility, while passing down the stairs in the great temple of the national war-god. His relative, Nezahualpilli, king of Tezcuco, addressed him thus :—

Remarkable Address of Nezahualpilli.

"Who can doubt, that the Aztec Empire has reached the zenith of its greatness, since the Almighty has placed over it one whose very presence fills every beholder with reverence! Rejoice, happy people, that you have now a sovereign, who will be to you a steady column of support; a father in distress, a more than brother in tenderness and sympathy; one whose aspiring soul will disdain all the profligate pleasures of the senses, and the wasting indulgence of sloth. And thou, illustrious youth, doubt not that the Creator, who has laid on thee so weighty a charge, will also give strength to sustain it; that He, who has been so liberal, in times past, will shower yet more abundant blessings on thy head, and keep thee firm in thy royal seat through many long and glorious years."

Montezuma melted into tears, and expressed his unfitness for the responsible office.

Character and Achievements of Montezuma.

He manifested much energy in administering his government, and bravery in his expeditions against revolted tribes.

His coronation was graced (or rather disgraced) by the bleeding sacrifice of many captives. Games and religious ceremonies continued several days. Montezuma led in person, his victorious armies to the farthest provinces on the Gulf of Mexico, and even to Nicaragua and Honduras.

Towards the latter part of his reign he became haughty and assumed a pomp attended with great expense, unknown to his predecessors. This alienated gradually the affections of his people, and their heavy taxes caused them to rise in opposition to the government. There were frequent insurrections, and the more the Aztec Empire was enlarged, the weaker it became.

In 1516, Nezahualpilli, the Tezcuacan king, in whom Montezuma had the greatest confidence, died, and the succession to the crown was contested by his two sons, Cacama and Ixtlilxochitl. A civil war ensued and a compromise was made by which the kingdom was divided between the two. Ixtlilxochitl became the enemy of Montezuma as the latter opposed him. The republic of Tlascala, between the Mexican Valley and the coast, was also a foe of the great Montezuma, which weakened, to some extent, his power.

This was the condition of the Aztec monarchy when Cortés arrived.

Ancient Tradition.

There was a tradition that a certain deity, who had left the country upon the waters of the Atlantic, would soon return. The appearance of the white men, with their thunder and lightning, was in accordance with the general expectation. They were to subdue the country. This idea, and the gradual declining of Montezuma's power, caused him to tremble upon his throne. He called together immediately his principal counsellors, including the kings of Tezcuco and Tlacopan, and consulted with them.

Embassy of Montezuma to Cortés.

He finally concluded to send an embassy to the Spaniards, and in seven or eight days it appeared before the strangers. Two Aztec nobles and the

governor, Teuhtile, accompanied by a hundred slaves, approached the Spanish tent, bearing the rich presents from Montezuma. The ambassadors touched the ground with their hands, and then raised them to their heads, and clouds of incense arose from the censers in the hands of their attendants. The presents consisted of shields, helmets, cuirasses embossed with plates and ornaments of pure gold, collars and bracelets of the same, sandals, fans, *panaches*, and crests of variegated feathers, intermingled with golden thread, and sprinkled with pearls and precious stones. Also images of birds and animals in wrought and cast gold and silver; curtains, coverlets, and robes of cotton, fine as silk, of beautiful colors, interwoven with feather-work. The Spanish helmet, which had been sent to the capital, was now returned, filled with grains of gold. The most remarkable presents were two circular plates of gold and silver, as large as carriage wheels, wrought in an elegant manner. The Spaniards were, of course, delighted to know that they were approaching such wealth. The ambassadors presented, in a polite manner, the refusal of their sovereign, to admit the Spaniards into the capital.

After ten days another embassy was received from the Emperor, renewing the order for the Spaniards not to approach any nearer the capital; but to return to their own country.

Cortés, however, was not to be put off in this way. He was determined to proceed into the interior at a suitable time.

He soon formed a colony and established Vera Cruz.

Visit to Cempoalla.

He was invited to visit a neighboring city, called Cempoalla, which was hostile to the Emperor. He complied, and formed an alliance with the inhabitants. To make his comrades more desperate he caused the fleet to be destroyed, and prepared for a march to Mexico.

From Cempoalla, Cortés proceeded towards Mexico, with four hundred foot soldiers, fifteen horse, and seven pieces of artillery. The cacique of Cempoalla also furnished him with 1,300 Indian warriors, 1,000 *tamanes*, or porters, and forty principal men of the town as hostages and guides.

Cortés, a robber as he was, addressed his soldiers, saying that "the blessed Savior would carry them victorious through every battle." What blasphemy, to say that the Savior would assist them on such an errand of rapine and murder as that!

Battle of Tlascalala.

August 16, 1519, the little army marched, and after a few days, reached the land of the Tlascalans, on lake Tezcuco. Here they were opposed by a formidable array from thousands of the natives, who attacked them with great ferocity, fatally wounding one cavalier and killing two horses; but the roar of the Spaniards' cannon soon caused the natives to flee.

Cortés had added many Indians to his ranks, so that his army now numbered 3,000.

As they went on they were met at another place by 1,000 Indians. A smart battle ensued, and the Indians retired into a pass and the Spaniards after them, and, turning a corner, the Spaniards were met by an immense army of more than 30,000, who came rushing on uttering a shrill and hideous war-cry. The Spaniards moved in a steady column and received the attacks of the foe with firmness. One Spaniard, however, was mortally

wounded, and one horse killed. As soon as they got through the pass, cutting their way through the thick masses of the enemy, they brought their cannon to bear and made dreadful havoc among the natives. They were soon obliged to retire, eight of their chiefs having fallen. As Cortés advanced towards the Tlascalcan capital he met an immense army, September 5, 1519, on a vast plain. They rushed on to the attack with a horrid yell, and darkened the sun with a tempest of arrows and stones. There was a very severe contest, and the Spaniards were nearly overcome; but finally, after being nearly all wounded, they gained the victory.

Soon after, a night attack was made on the Spaniards, who were thought to be the children of the sun; but they were ready for the foe, and dispersed them with terrible slaughter.

Finally the enemy sued for peace, and the invaders entered the city of Tlascala in triumph, September 23, 1519.

Montezuma sent another embassy to Cortés, forbidding him to go to the capital, and afterwards another, inviting him to go, by way of Cholula. It was thought that some plot was laid to destroy the invaders.

Destruction of Cholula.

Cortés finally moved on to Cholula, which lay sixty miles south-east of Mexico, having received into his ranks 6,000 warriors from Tlascala. At Cholula, a plot *had* been laid, by Montezuma, to destroy the Spaniards; but Cortés discovered it, and commenced a slaughter of the innocent inhabitants almost unparalleled in history. It is said that 6,000 were slain, and the city laid in ruins. What fine Christians these Spaniards were!

Arrival at Tezcuco.

The army moved on, and soon came in sight of the lofty heights upon which stood the "HALLS OF THE MONTEZUMAS," or, as it was called, "*Montezuma's Mountain Throne*." The monarch trembled in his palace as the invaders gradually approached. He shut himself up in despair, refused to take food, and sought aid in prayer and sacrifices. Afterwards, he sent an embassy, with the king of Tezcuco at its head, to welcome the Spaniards into the capital. The prince went, attended with great pomp, borne in a palanquin or litter, decorated with plates of gold and precious stones, having pillars elegantly wrought, supporting a canopy of green plumes.

After various ceremonies, the invaders went on and soon entered the royal residence of Iztapalapan, governed by Cuitlahua, the Emperor's brother. The lords of some neighboring cities, of the royal house of Mexico were present, and served a splendid collation to the Spaniards in one of the grand "*Halls*" of the palace.

The architecture was fine. The roofs were of odorous cedar-wood, and the walls tapestried with fine cottons, stained with brilliant colors. The gardens were exceedingly beautiful, and rich in flowers of every hue and fruits of every clime. Here was also an aviary, where birds of the most gaudy plumage were raising their notes of music. A canal was cut, so that barges could sail from lake Tezcuco directly into the heart of this garden.

Here was also a reservoir for fish of the most beautiful colors. It was 1,600 paces in circumference, built of stone, and surrounded by a stone walk wide enough for four persons to go abreast, the sides being curiously sculptured.

November 8, 1519, the Spaniards marched on towards the great capital, a few miles distant, with less than seven thousand men including nearly four hundred Spaniards. At the distance of one and a half miles from the city, they came to a solid work or curtain of stone, which passed across the dike on which they were marching. It was twelve feet high, with towers at each end, and a battlement gate-way in the centre, which was opened for the Spanish troops to enter.

Reception of Cortés by Montezuma.

Several hundred Aztec chiefs met them and announced the approach of Montezuma to welcome them to the capital. They were elegantly dressed with fanciful sashes around their loins, broad mantles of feather-embroidery flowing over their shoulders, bracelets and collars of turquoise mosaic on their arms and necks, with delicate plumage curiously mingled, while their ears, under-lips, and sometimes their noses, were ornamented with precious stones or crescents of fine gold.

After the formalities were over, the army moved on to a bridge near the gates of the city.

As they crossed the bridge they saw the brilliant retinue of the emperor moving towards them through the great street of the city. Among a crowd of Indian nobles, preceded by three officers of state, bearing golden wands, they beheld the royal palanquin blazing with burnished gold, and carried by nobles. The canopy was gaudy featherwork, powdered with jewels and fringed with silver and was supported by four nobles of the highest rank. They walked barefooted with a slow pace, and stopped as they came near the strangers.

Montezuma descended from the palanquin and advanced, leaning upon the arms of the lords of Tezcuco and Iztapalapan, his nephew and brother. As he approached under the canopy, his attendants covered the ground with cotton tapestry that he might not step on the naked earth.

Montezuma wore the girdle and large square cloak of his nation. On his feet were sandals, whose soles were solid gold, and the leather thongs which bound them to his ankles were embossed with the same metal. The cloak and the sandals were covered with precious stones and pearls. His head was ornamented simply by a *panache* of plumes of royal green, which floated down his back.

The army halted, Cortés dismounted and advanced, attended by a few cavaliers, to meet the emperor. They congratulated each other, and Cortés threw around the neck of Montezuma a sparkling chain of colored crystals, and was going to embrace him, when two Aztec lords restrained him, being shocked at the idea.

The emperor appointed his brother to direct the Spaniards to the quarters assigned them in the southern part of Tenochtitlan.

As they passed through the great street of the city they were surprised at the elegance of the nobles' houses and of the temples. Where the great cathedral of Mexico now stands rose a huge pyramidal pile dedicated to the patron war-god of the Aztecs, covering a large area.* Facing the western gate of the enclosure of this temple, stood a range of stone buildings covering a large space.

* See page —

Halls of Axayacatl.

It was the palace of Axayacatl, Montezuma's father, built by that monarch fifty years before. The Spaniards were allowed to reside there and "revel" in those splendid "*Halls*." The emperor was in the court-yard waiting to receive them as they approached the palace. Montezuma took from a vase of flowers, a massy collar, in which the shell of a species of craw-fish was set in gold, and connected by heavy links of the same metal. From the chain hung eight ornaments of gold, each a span in length and elegantly wrought. The emperor hung this collar around the neck of Cortés and told him that this palace belonged to him and his brethren.

Halls of the Montezumas.

On the following morning, Cortés went, attended by four cavaliers, to visit the emperor at his palace, which stood southwest of the cathedral. It was a vast, irregular pile of stone buildings similar to the one occupied by the Spaniards. Its "*Halls*" were so numerous and spacious, as one of the conquerors remarked, that, though he had visited it several times for the express purpose, he had been too much fatigued each time, by wandering through the apartments, ever to see the whole of them. The edifice was built of redstone, ornamented with marble and sculpture. Fountains of crystal waters were seen in the courts, fed from the large reservoir on the heights of Chapultepec, and furnishing more than a hundred baths in the palace. The "*Halls*" were of immense size, hung with richly stained cotton, the skins of wild animals and gorgeous draperies of featherwork, wrought in imitation of birds, insects and flowers. Clouds of incense rolled up from censers, filling the palace with rich odors. The emperor was seated at the farther end of a spacious saloon surrounded by his lords. A long talk was held in reference to religion and other subjects. The emperor could not be persuaded to embrace the Christian religion.

Many curiosities were found in the city. There were immense aviaries and menageries containing every variety of birds and animals of the country. All kinds of serpents were confined in cages and hissed at the strangers. In another place was a large collection of human monsters and dwarfs that were considered as an important appendage of state.

Around the buildings containing these curiosities were spread out beautiful gardens, full of delicious flowers of every hue. Amid the groves of shrubbery were numerous fountains throwing up their refreshing spray. There were ten large tanks full of fish, where numerous fowls were allowed to play.

Halls of the Montezumas on the Royal Hill of Chapultepec.

This was the most luxurious residence of the Aztec monarch, a spot consecrated by the ashes of his ancestors. It was in a westerly direction from the capital, and its base, in ancient times, was washed by the beautiful waters of Lake Tezcuco. On the lofty summit of this natural fortification of porphyritic rock, now stands the magnificent castle erected by the young viceroy Galvez, at the close of the seventeenth century. The view from its lofty Halls is one of the finest in the vicinity of Mexico. The landscape, covered with verdant fields waving with rich harvests of European grain, extend as far as the eye can reach. Then for miles around the base of the hill, the royal gardens dazzle the eye with the rich and variegated

colors of flowers on every side. There were, until the middle of the last century, two splendid statues of Montezuma and his father, cut in *bas-relief*, in the porphyry. The grounds are still shaded by immense cypress trees more than fifty feet in circumference, which were centuries old at the time of the Spanish conquest. There the proud Aztec monarchs held their courtly revels.

Montezuma had his harems, and could boast of as many wives as an Eastern Sultan.

His palace was furnished with numerous baths, and every luxury which could be desired was there. The monarch was dressed in splendid attire, which he changed four times a day, and never wore a suit the second time. The magnificent *Halls* and *Antechambers* were filled with nobles constantly attending upon their sovereign.

As he partook of his meals, a screen of richly gilt and carved wood was drawn round him to hide him from the vulgar eye. He was seated on a cushion and his dishes were of the finest ware of Cholula. He had a service of gold for religious celebrations. His ordinary dishes never appeared on his table the second time. The saloon was lighted by resinous wood which sent forth a sweet odor. His drink was chocolate, served in golden goblets with spoons of the same metal or of tortoise shell finely wrought. After finishing his meal, water was handed to him in a silver basin for ablution, then pipes made of varnished and richly gilt wood were brought, from which he inhaled through the nose or mouth fumes of tobacco, mingled with liquid amber. While smoking jugglers amused him by their pranks, or women by dancing. After these diversions he slept and was then prepared for foreign ambassadors.

Vast Hall filled with Gold and other riches.

The Spaniards observed in one apartment of the palace where they resided, a door which seemed to have been recently plastered over. It had been remarked that Montezuma had some secret place to keep his immense wealth. The Spaniards removed the plastering and found a secret door, which they opened. Their expectations were fully realized. There was a vast "*Hall*" filled with rich and beautiful articles of curious workmanship, gold and silver in bars and in the ore and many jewels of great value. These were the contributions of tributary cities, and once the property of his father. "It seemed to me," said Diaz, one of the Spaniards, "as if all the riches of the world were in that room."

CHAPTER IX.

DESPERATE MEASURES OF CORTES TO GET POSSESSION OF THE CAPITAL AND COUNTRY.

Seizure of Montezuma.

CORTES determined first to seize the emperor and carry him to the Spanish quarters. He had a pretext, as some of the Spaniards, left at Vera Cruz, had been deceived and murdered by the Mexicans and Montezuma had granted no redress. The next morning, Cortés ordered twenty-

five or thirty soldiers to enter the royal palace, three or four at a time so as not to excite suspicion. After they had all entered and the conversation had commenced in a lively manner, Cortés spoke of the treachery in reference to the murdered Spaniards near Vera Cruz and charged Montezuma with being the author of it. He denied having any thing to do with it, and promised to make full reparation by bringing the murderers to justice.

Next, Cortés, after intimating that he thought the emperor to be innocent, said that, to convince his own sovereign of his innocence, it would be necessary for Montezuma to go and reside at the Spanish quarters. The emperor was amazed and turned as pale as death; but in a moment he resented the insult and exclaimed, "When was it ever heard that a great prince, like myself, voluntarily left his own palace to become a prisoner in the hands of strangers." When further pressed, he offered to give up one of his sons and one of his daughters to remain as hostages with the Spaniards. Two hours thus passed, when Velasquez de Leon became impatient, and cried out, "Why do we waste words on the barbarian? We have gone too far to recede now. Let us seize him, and, if he resists, plunge our swords into his body." The fierce tone and menacing gestures with which this was uttered, alarmed the monarch and he inquired of Marina what the angry Spaniard said. She explained it as well as she could, and besought Montezuma to go with the Spaniards or she feared violent hands would be laid on him, and perhaps he would be put to death. His resolution was shaken, he had no one to sympathize with him, and finally, with a voice scarcely audible from emotion, he consented to go with the Spaniards. He felt that he was the instrument of an irresistible fate. Orders were given for the royal litter to be brought. The nobles were astonished. As they passed through the streets a rumor was circulated among the natives that their emperor had been carried by force to the Spanish quarters. A mob would have been raised immediately, but Montezuma told the people to disperse, as he was going of his own accord to visit his friends. He did not wish to have it thought that he was a captive.

He had ample accommodations, and was treated with respect; but closely guarded. In front of the palace was placed sixty soldiers, and the same number in the rear.

Burning of the Aztec Chiefs by Cortés.

Soon Quauhpopoca, who was the instigator of the murder committed on the Spaniards near Vera Cruz, arrived, attended by his son and fifteen Aztec chiefs. Montezuma delivered him over to Cortés to try. The cruel Spaniard condemned him and his comrades to be burned alive before the palace. The funeral piles were made of heaps of arrows, javelins and other weapons, drawn from the arsenals around the great temple, by order of Montezuma. Thus the natives were deprived of the means of defence. To complete the cruelty of the black-hearted Cortés, he entered the apartments of Montezuma, attended by a soldier with fetters in his hand. He charged the emperor with participating in those murders, and ordered him to be bound. Poor Montezuma said not a word, and made no resistance. He only moaned. His attendants were bathed in tears, and greatly distressed for their sovereign. They tenderly held his feet in their arms, and inserted their shawls to shield them from

the iron; but the iron had penetrated the monarch's heart. He was no longer Montezuma.

In the mean time, the Aztec lord and his companions from the vicinity of Vera Cruz, were bound hand and foot to the blazing piles, and submitted, without a cry or complaint, to their terrible fate.

After this revolting tragedy was ended by the Christian murderers, Cortés went and took the fetters from Montezuma.

He was allowed to go to the temple and some other places; but was closely guarded by Spaniards, and was informed that if he attempted to escape he would be instantly put to death. Montezuma resigned himself to his fate without a struggle; but his nephew, Cacama, lord of Tezcucó, beheld the abject condition of his uncle with the greatest indignation, and endeavored to rouse him to manly exertion, but in vain. A coalition of princes was formed at Tezcucó against the Spaniards; but Cortés, with the assistance of his pusillanimous captive, got possession of them and put them in fetters. Cortés made a tool of Montezuma, through whom he governed the vast dominions of his captive, learned the resources of the country, and especially the places from which the natives obtained their gold. It was gleaned, mostly from the beds of rivers, several hundreds of miles from the capital.

CHAPTER X.

MONTEZUMA SWEARS ALLEGIANCE TO SPAIN, AND FINALLY LOSES HIS LIFE.

In 1520 Cortés felt himself sufficiently established to demand a formal recognition from Montezuma of the supremacy of the Spanish emperor. Montezuma called together his principal caciques and told them, that in accordance with their expectation, their ancient god, who had gone across the ocean, as he promised, had sent to take possession of his ancient dominions. For himself, he was willing to acknowledge that authority. Said he, "You have been faithful vassals of mine, during the many years that I have sat on the throne of my fathers. I now expect that you will show me this last act of obedience by acknowledging the great king beyond the waters to be your lord, also, and that you will pay him tribute in the same manner as you have hitherto done to me." As he closed, his voice was nearly stifled by emotion, and he wept like a child. His nobles were filled with astonishment; but gave in their allegiance to Spain.

All the principal provinces and cities paid tribute in gold and various commodities, one-fifth of which was sent to Spain. There were immense heaps of gold and silver brought in, amounting in value, to six millions three hundred thousand dollars.

Violation of the Mexican religion.

Next, Cortés demanded the great temple to be given up to the Spaniards, and their worship to take the place of that of the Mexican. A part of the temple was given up to the Spaniards, and they made various arrangements to overturn the religion of the Aztecs. This touched a tender

point, and soon raised a feeling of disgust and great hostility towards the strangers.

Montezuma told the Spaniards that, as he expected, the gods were offended and that the Spaniards must leave the country immediately, or they would all be destroyed. Cortés pretended to be willing; but wished for time to prepare ships. Montezuma sent workmen to assist at Vera Cruz. Cortés ordered his men to be very slow in building the ships.

Arrival of a fleet from Cuba to oppose Cortés.

A fleet of 18 vessels left Cuba, March 1520, containing 900 men, 800 of whom were cavalry, 80 arquebusiers, 150 crossbow-men, with heavy guns and a large supply of military stores. There were also 1000 Indians. The fleet was under the command of a Castilian, named Pénfilo de Narvaez, and reached Vera Cruz April 23d. Narvaez, with his forces, marched towards the capital to meet Cortés. About the middle of May, Cortés marched to meet his Spanish enemy, with only 70 men. At Cholula 120 soldiers more joined him, and before reaching Vera Cruz 60 more, making in all 250 soldiers, only 5 of whom were mounted.

Battle of Cempoalla.

This little army proceeded on to meet the foe, and came up with and attacked them at night in Cempoalla. The artillery of Narvaez now opened upon the ranks of Cortés; but they kept so close to the walls that the balls of the enemy passed over their heads. Cortés now ordered his men to fall upon the artillery with their pikes, before they should have time to reload. They did so and got possession of their guns. Sandoval, with a brave few, according to previous orders, passed up the steps amidst a shower of missiles and soon grappled with Narvaez himself. There was a desperate struggle; but Narvaez had an eye struck out with a spear. He was taken into the sanctuary of the temple. Sandoval soon set that on fire and Narvaez and his defenders were obliged to come out. He was brought to the ground and put in fetters, when his soldiers yielded to Cortés. Those in the other temples soon capitulated and Cortés was master of the country still. About 6 fell on the side of Cortés and 12 on the other side.

Many, however, were wounded.

This was a short, but brave conflict. Cortés displayed great skill and valor.

It was not long before news came from the capital informing Cortés that the city was in arms against the Spaniards, and that there was danger of the utter destruction of the Spanish forces.

Cortés hastened back, with as many of his forces as could be spared. On reviewing his troops he found that he had 1000 foot, 100 horse, besides 2000 Tlascalans. His little army arrived at the capital June 24th, 1520.

Cortés found that the insurrection had been caused by the rashness of Alvarado in ordering a general slaughter of the nobility at a certain festival. The temple in which the innocent natives were assembled was flooded with human gore.

This was a most outrageous and uncalled for cruelty! The dreadful slaughter justly roused the Mexicans to cry for vengeance on the Spanish murderers, and the next morning they were attacked with great fury by the enraged populace. Some commenced scaling the walls, and others

undermining and setting fire to the wooden parts of them. Finally Montezuma came out and dissuaded them from any further attempts, and they changed their operations into a regular blockade. The natives threw up works around the Spaniards to prevent them from escaping, and cut off all supplies and waited to starve them out. At this juncture Cortés arrived. Soon the draw bridges were removed by the populace, and the whole city and country round about were in arms against the invaders.

Battle of Tenochtitlan, and Expulsion of the Spaniards from the City.

On came the vast masses of the enemy to the walls of the palace and poured upon the Spaniards immense volleys of arrows, darts, stones and missiles, attended by a hideous war yell. The Spaniards mowed them down by hundreds with their well-aimed fire.

Still the natives pressed forward, though dreadfully mangled, and endeavored to scale the walls; but they were shot down as fast as they raised their heads above them. Finally the out-works were set on fire and a breach made in the walls. The battle was now fierce, and dreadful slaughter ensued until the curtain of night closed upon the combatants. At early dawn the natives commenced again, and the Spaniards sallied out upon their foes and made a desperate assault. The natives gave way; but soon rallied again and threw their missiles from housetops on all sides, upon the Spaniards, which threw them into some disorder. They forced their way from one point to another; but the enemy closed up behind as well as before, and amazed the Spaniards exceedingly. Finally Cortés ordered the city to be set on fire, and multitudes of the innocent natives perished in the flames.

Thus the day was nearly spent, when Cortés sounded a retreat and retired to his quarters. The natives followed them closely and exulted, saying that the gods had given them into their hands. The next day, Cortés went to Montezuma and endeavored to induce him to allay the fury of his subjects; but he refused, saying that the Spaniards would never leave these walls alive. At last, being told that the Spaniards would readily leave if a way were opened, he consented to address his people. But the people were incensed against him for favoring the Spaniards, and a volley of missiles were hurled at the great monarch. A stone fell upon his head and brought him to the ground. The Mexicans themselves, being shocked to see their sovereign fall, fled in every direction.

Montezuma was carried to his apartments, and recovered his senses; but did not wish to live, thus dishonored by his own subjects, and tore off the bandages from his wounds as fast as they were put on.

Five or six hundred of the Mexican warriors took possession of the temple of Huitzilopotchli, which was about 150 feet high, and commanded the Spanish quarters. Immense showers of missiles came down upon the heads of the Spaniards. Cortés sent a detachment of a hundred men under Escobar to storm the place. The force was repulsed three times, and obliged to return with considerable loss. Then Cortés himself, with 300 chosen men and several thousand of his auxiliaries, rushed out and assaulted the natives at the base of the temple, and after a severe struggle, forced them to give way. Up the steps rushed the Spaniards, fighting their way as they went. At last they reached the top and a desperate struggle commenced. They fought like tigers on both sides, and many were precipitated from that dizzy height and dashed to pieces on the pavement

below. Cortés came very near being thrown over by two stout warriors; but, finally the Spaniard succeeded in extricating himself from their grasp and hurled one of them over the battlements. The battle lasted three hours, and finally the poor Aztecs were either slain or hurled to the ground, all but a few priests, who were taken prisoners. Forty-five of the Spaniards were slain, and nearly all of the others were more or less injured. They tumbled the Mexican idol down the steps, and burned up the sanctuary and wooden parts of the temple. That night, they followed up their advantage and burned 300 houses.

After this, Cortés addressed the Mexicans from the walls, and endeavored to bring them into subjection, but in vain. They said they were willing to lose a thousand lives for every Spaniard that they could destroy, and closed with a volley of missiles. Thus the battle went on for several days. In the meantime, the innocent and broken-hearted Montezuma expired in the arms of his nobles on the 30th of June, 1520, aged 41 years, in the 18th year of his reign.

On the night of July 1st it was determined to leave the city, and accordingly the Spaniards moved their forces from that dangerous place. They proceeded quietly until they reached a break in the causeway and were placing down their artificial bridge, when some Mexican sentinels gave the alarm, and thousands of warriors were upon the Spaniards. The battle was fierce and awful. The Spaniards seemed to be overwhelmed by the swarms of the enemy, and came very near being totally destroyed. A few, however, after encountering the greatest perils and sufferings, escaped. About 450 Spaniards and 4000 Indian allies, more than two thirds of Cortés' whole force, were killed and missing.

CHAPTER XI.

RETREAT OF THE SPANIARDS ACROSS THE COUNTRY, BATTLES, ETC.

Battle of Otumba, or Otompan.

As the little band came in sight of the valley of Otompan, they were astonished to find it filled with immense multitudes of the enemy, sent by Cuitlahua, the successor of Montezuma. The Spaniards marched on and met the foe. They were obliged to fight their way through the thickest masses of the enemy every step that they took. The natives fell back and opened their ranks for the passage of the Spaniards; but soon pressed again upon them with renewed energy. The volleys of missiles darkened the air, and the war-cries were truly terrific.

The Spaniards finally began to be weary, and the barbarians, noticing it, fought more fiercely, and it was probable that very soon the little band would be swallowed up by the enemy. At that moment Cortés observed, at a distance, a great chief, the leader of the host, and said to his cavaliers, "that is our mark." They dashed through the crowd with desperate bravery, cutting every thing before them. They soon came up with the chief, threw him from his litter and killed him. This caused the greatest consternation among the natives, and they began to disperse on all sides. The Spaniards pursued them and made dreadful slaughter. Finally they

returned and found the field of battle covered with many chiefs and thousands of privates slain, and riches of almost every description. Thus ended one of the most terrible battles on record, July 8, 1520. It is believed that there were 200,000 Indian warriors in the field, and that 20,000 of them were slain.

Cortés made various excursions against different tribes, and finally determined to march the second time against the Aztec capital. Cuitlahua had died with small-pox, and Gautemozin had been appointed emperor.

Cortés, with about 600 Spanish and more than 100,000 Indian allies, set out for the capital. He sacked Iztapalapan, after a terrible battle, and after slaughtering more than 6000 of the poor natives. He destroyed Cuernavaca, burned Xochimilco, (where he actually fell into the hands of the enemy, but was rescued by his brave comrades,) and gained possession of many other towns.

Capture of Mexico.

Finally, the brigantines, which had been built at Veru Cruz and conveyed across the country, arrived and were launched April 28, 1521, upon the lake, which separated the Spaniards from the capital. By the last of May, the siege of Mexico was commenced. The Spaniards were obliged to fight their way step by step. They gained possession of the avenues to the city, and finally reached the great street of the capital. The Mexicans were gradually driven back, though they fought with desperation. The Spaniards rushed into the old palace of Axayacatl where they formerly had their quarters, and soon it was in flames. They made frequent attacks by sallying into the city, and then returned to their quarters without. Guatemozin, the emperor, was not like Montezuma. He was determined to resist the strangers to the last moment, and the most determined opposition was made. The Spaniards were frequently driven back with great loss. At one time 62 of them, with a large number of their allies, fell into the hands of the enemy, and were reserved for sacrifice. They could actually see from their camp the immolation of their brave companions upon the heathen altars.

Finally Cortés determined to advance slowly, and destroy every dwelling as he passed on. He commenced, and soon reached the palace of Gautemozin, formerly that of Montezuma, and those splendid "Halls," where now stands the President's Palace, were demolished and set on fire. The carnage went on. Famine was doing its dreadful work of death, and the pestilence was numbering its hundreds of Aztec victims, when Cortés rushed again on the foe, and slaughtered 40,000 of almost starved natives before they would yield. At last, after more than seven-eighths of the city was laid in ruins, and the most awful havoc made of its brave citizens, Gautemozin, in an attempt to escape, was taken captive. This completed the triumph of the invaders, and the enemy yielded. It is estimated that more than one hundred and twenty thousand perished during this siege, which is almost unparalleled in history.

After the fall of the capital, the conquest of Mexico was complete, and the avaricious Spaniards commenced immediately to seek for gold. As they found very little of the precious metal in the city, they supposed Guatemozin had concealed quantities of it, and put him to the torture, to induce him to reveal the place where it was hidden. The monarch stated that it had been thrown into the water. Some was found there; but not as much as was expected.

CHAPTER XII.

MODERN MEXICO.

Rebuilding of the City.

CORTES soon began to rebuild the city, and in less than four years a new metropolis arose, far superior in magnificence to the ancient capital. What is now called the "*Grand Plaza*,"* stands where the great Temple of the Sun and the palace of Montezuma displayed their splendid domes. Great improvements were made in various parts of the empire, and the Roman Catholic religion was established.

Cortés, being afraid of the influence of Guatemozin, and pretending that a conspiracy was formed against the Spaniards, caused the unfortunate monarch to be hung.

The country was called, by the Spaniards, New Spain. The government which Cortés formed was maintained essentially for three centuries. Since 1812, there have been numerous changes, and the country has been rent by internal feuds. There has hardly been a settled state of affairs from that time until the forces of the United States took possession of the land.

Mexican War.

The late war between this country and Mexico, originated from various circumstances.

In the first place the Government of the United States had certain claims against Mexico, acknowledged by the latter, but not cancelled. Next, the people of Texas, having formed themselves into an independent government and maintained that independence eight years, were desirous of being annexed to the United States. In order to accomplish this object, as Mexico was opposed to it, it was agreed between our Government and that of Texas, that the former should send upon the borders of Texas, an armed force sufficient to put down any opposition from Mexico. Accordingly Zachary Taylor, Colonel of the 6th Regiment of Infantry, was appointed to take command of these forces.

April, 1845, two companies arrived from Fort Leavenworth, making 25 companies in all of what was called the "army of observation."

July 23, a part of the force set sail for Corpus Christi, (generally called "Kinney's Ranch," situated on the western shore of Corpus Christi Bay,) and arrived July 31. The army was now called the "army of occupation." In August the aspect of affairs began to be menacing, and it was expected that Mexico would soon declare war.

Battle of Matamoras.

April 25, General Arista arrived at the scene of action. April 28, Captain Walker's camp was attacked by Generals Torrejon and Canales, being stationed midway between Point Isabel and Matamoras. Five of his men were killed and four missing, he having gone out with some of his force on a scout.

* See engraving.



GENERAL TAYLOR.

May 3, the batteries from Matamoras opened upon our camp at day-break with great energy. The battle was fierce for a while, and in thirty minutes all the heavy gun-batteries of the enemy were silenced by our artillery. The enemy threw many shells; but without effect.

Battle of Palo Alto.

Our army moved on with firmness to meet the enemy, and when within 700 yards the enemy opened their fire from a battery on the right.

Ringgold's and Duncan's batteries advanced and commenced firing. The enemy fired continually, but not with much precision. Their cavalry moved on the left and then three batteries were placed in a line at a considerable distance from each other and bodies of infantry between, making a long line of battle. Ringgold's battery made dreadful havoc, cutting down almost whole platoons at once. The two eighteen pounders roared tremendously and the cavalry of the enemy soon began to retire, at first in a trot and then in a gallop. When the enemy saw the 3d Infantry advancing in column by division, they fled with rapidity. On the left, Duncan cut them down in great numbers, and the shout of our men could be heard above the cannon's roar. The firing commenced at 3 P. M. and ceased for a time at 4 P. M. The firing soon commenced again, and Duncan poured a tremendous fire into their right flank and threw it into the greatest confusion. As night approached the firing gradually ceased on both sides. The enemy had been driven from his position and forced to



BATTLE OF PALO ALTO

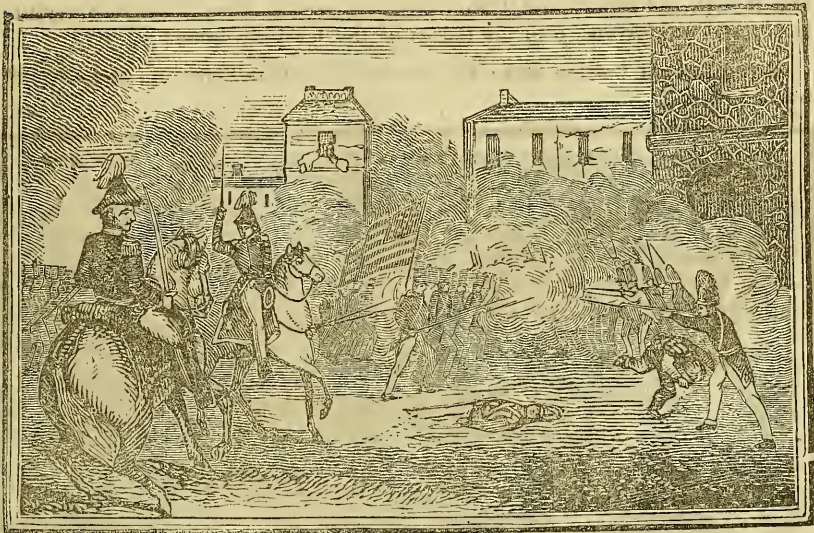
retire, and our army were left victors upon the battle ground. We had only nine killed, fifty-four wounded, and two missing. Our wounded suffered much during the night. General Arista commanded the enemy, having 6,000 men, and our force consisted of 2,211. Thus ended the famous battle of Palo Alto.

Battle of Resaca de la Palma.

Captain McCall's command were ordered to advance and draw the fire of the enemy. The latter were on the opposite bank of a ravine, concave towards us and their batteries were so arranged as to sweep the road and every approach through the chaparral. McCall received the fire of the enemy and Lieut. Ridgely, successor to Ringgold, was ordered forward with his battery. The battle commenced with fury. Frequently were bayonets crossed, they were in such close proximity. The enemy gave way slowly, but fought like tigers, for every inch of the ground. But the victory was ours. The rout was general and complete, though our force consisted of 1,700 men, the other being required to guard the train. Two thousand of the best of Mexico's troops came over to join in this battle of the 9th, called "*Resaca de la Palma.*" Our loss was three officers and thirty-six men killed, twelve officers and fifty-nine men wounded.

Battle of Monterey.

September 21, 1846, at 7 A. M., the first and volunteer divisions were ordered to advance towards the city. Our mortar and howitzer batteries opened. We were fired upon from the citadel. Our men, in the midst of these shots, pushed rapidly onward five hundred yards and rushed into the streets. Captain Backus drove the enemy from this. Two companies of the 4th Infantry (90 strong) moved forward under a terrible fire, and determined to storm a work defended by 500 men.



STORMING OF MONTERREY.

This was severe fighting. Major Lear was severely wounded, Lieut. D. S. Irwin killed, Capt. G. P. Field killed by lancers, Lieuts. Hoskins and Woods were killed, and Lieut. Graham mortally wounded. Major Abercrombie and Capt. La Motte were slightly wounded. Lieut. Dillworth lost a leg, and Lieut. Ferret was taken prisoner.

A body of men, from the 3d and 4th Infantry, of one hundred and fifty, were now ordered to enter the city and take possession of a work of the enemy, apparently a few streets distant. They were exposed to a most destructive fire; but moved on, taking advantage of every shelter in their way. Capt. L. N. Morris, 3d Infantry, was commander. At last, our cartridges being nearly exhausted, we were commanded to retire, in order, to our captured works.

Our men marched round nearly two miles to the west end of the town, under a heavy fire from "Independence Hill," situated west of the palace, and from "Federacion Hill," between which heights the Saltillo road runs. The 2d Brigade formed and advanced amid a shower of balls, and when within a hundred yards, made a charge at double quick step. The enemy fled in all directions.

Worth's attack upon the height, commanding the Bishop's Palace, at day-break, (Sept. 22.) was fierce and successful. The enemy, at the castle, being checked so that they could not aid their flying forces, the height was carried with little loss.

About noon, the Mexican cavalry deployed before the palace and endeavored to charge upon our skirmishers. Our men pursued them, under Vinton, with terrible effect. Many of the enemy were kept from entering the castle again, as our men rushed in through every opening, and drove the enemy before them. It was now expected every moment, that the city would capitulate; but they held out and fought like tigers.

During the day (23d) the enemy sent in a flag of truce, requesting a cessation of hostilities, that the women and children might be removed.

Old Rough and Ready said, "No, it was too late." Finally the city capitulated, and was given up to the forces of the United States.

Several naval battles were fought near Tuspan, Tampico, and several other towns.



BATTLE OF BUENA VISTA.

Battle of Buena Vista.

On the 5th of February, 1846, Gen. Taylor, having heard reports of the advancement of Santa Anna with a large force, it was evident that there must be a terrible conflict, and Gen. Taylor selected a pass two miles in advance of Buena Vista, as his position.

On the morning of the 22d the enemy approached, and Gen. Taylor returned immediately to camp. Tremendous clouds of dust announced the advance of the enemy, who arrived in position, with immense masses, between 10 and 11 o'clock A. M. All was silence, waiting for the attack, when a white flag was brought into our camp, by Surgeon-General Lindenberger, with the following message from Santa Anna:

"You are surrounded by twenty thousand men, and cannot, in any human probability, avoid suffering a rout, and being cut to pieces with your troops; but as you deserve consideration and particular esteem, I wish to save you from a catastrophe, and for that purpose give you this notice, in order that you may surrender at discretion, under the assurance that you will be treated with the consideration belonging to the Mexican character, to which end you will be granted an hour's time to make up your mind, to commence from the moment when my flag of truce arrives in your camp."

Old Rough and Ready said: "I beg leave to say, that I decline acceding to your request."

Skirmishing commenced and continued until after dark, with slight loss on our side.

On the morning of the 23d, the action was renewed, and the fighting was



SANTA ANNA.

now very severe upon the enemy; but they poured upon our men volleys of grape and cannister. Our left giving way, encouraged the enemy, and large masses of them pressed forward and forced our light troops, on the side of the mountain, to retire, and many of them could not be rallied until they reached the dépôt at Buena Vista. The 2d Illinois Regiment, to which a section of Sherman's battery was attached, were driven before the enemy.

The Mexican Infantry and cavalry poured in so rapidly that our rear was in danger. Thus far evidently, every move went against us. But General Taylor now arrived and took a commanding position on the elevated plateau. His presence was enough to animate our troops. The Mississippi Regiment, under Davis, was ordered to the left, and came in contact, immediately with large portions of the enemy, who had turned our flank. The struggle was severe, but in favor of our troops.

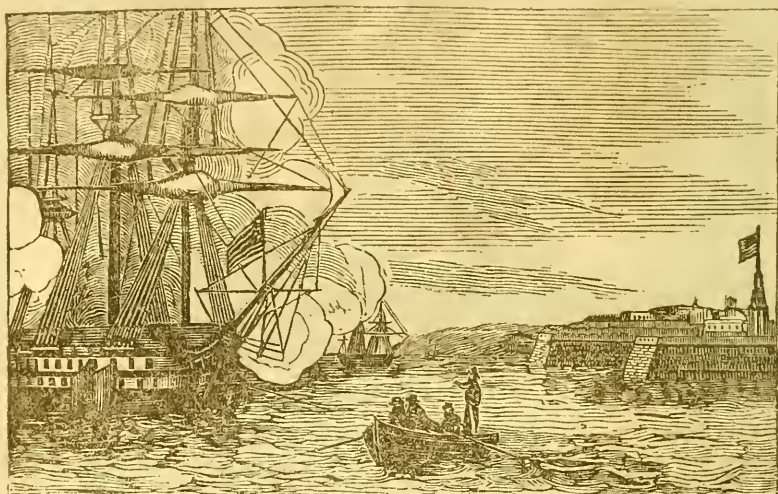
Our forces were pouring upon the enemy a terrific fire from different sections and pieces, under O'Brien, Bragg, Sherman, Thomas, Kilburn, Reynolds, French, and Bryan, forming a line. The thick columns of the enemy were made to stagger, fearful inroads were made in their ranks, and they were finally, after many desperate struggles, obliged to give way. Their success was short, and their shouts of triumph were soon at an end. Just as they began to give way a little, Lieut. Rucker, with his squadron of 1st dragoons, was ordered to dash in among them, which was done with great effect.

The enemy endeavored to charge once or twice, but were driven back every time in confusion. Firing had nearly ceased; but one struggle more

was to come. Santa Anna, being reinforced by cavalry, under cover of artillery, charged our line in a most desperate manner, by horse and foot. Great masses came rushing on, and poured among us a deadly fire.

Our batteries, however, finally turned the tide. Their fire was so firm, precise, and awful, that the enemy could not resist, and fell back in disorder. There was dreadful carnage on both sides.

Our artillery turned the tide of battle three times during the day. It was now ten hours that the battle had been raging. The enemy did not make another attempt to force our lines, and our troops, weary, dropped upon the battle ground to seek rest, to prepare them for the morrow, among the dead and dying, without any fires to warm their benumbed



AMERICAN FLEET SALUTING THE CASTLE AT VERA CRUZ.

limbs. The wounded were removed to Saltillo, and our men prepared for an attack in the morning; but the enemy retired very early to Agua Nueva, leaving many of their dead and dying.

In the battle of Buena Vista, we had two hundred and sixty-seven killed, four hundred and fifty-six wounded, and twenty-three missing. The enemy must have lost two thousand. There were five hundred of their dead left upon the field. We had twenty-eight officers killed, and forty-one wounded.

Battle of Vera Cruz.

March 9, 1847, Gen. Scott ordered the landing to be commenced immediately. Gen. Worth commanded the first line of the army and formed his men (4,500 strong) on the beach and neighboring heights just before sunset, and by 10 o'clock P. M. an army of 10,000 men were on shore, without any accident occurring. Gen. Scott landed early in the morning, and preparations were immediately made to surround the city. As our men advanced, some shot and shells were fired from the town and castle, but without effect. At 2 o'clock, March 10, a brisk fire from the enemy commenced. At sunrise, the steamer Spitfire, Capt. Tatnall, took position



GENERAL SCOTT.

in front of the city and castle, and commenced firing. She continued for an hour, and the city and castle returned the compliment. Soon after the Spitfire opened her fire, the 1st and 2d divisions moved up the beach towards the city about a mile and commenced to invest the place.

By the 22d, seven ten-inch mortars were in battery, and others nearly ready. At 2 o'clock P. M., Gen. Scott addressed a summons to the Governor of Vera Cruz, and received an answer in two hours.

By noon, we had ten mortars battering the walls of the city. The ten-inch mortars, planted about eight hundred yards from the city, were very effective. The naval battery, No. 5, consisting of three thirty-two pounders and three eight-inch Paixhans, opened. Now, batteries 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, were shaking the whole foundation of the city, by their tremendous fire.

On the 26th, Gen. Scott received overtures from Gen. Landero, on whom Gen. Morales had devolved the command. It was finally agreed that the city and castle should surrender to us.

Battle of Sierra Gordo.

April 18, 1847, early in the morning, our army moved to the attack in columns. Gen. Twigg's division attacked the enemy's left and carried the breast-works, after a slight resistance, at the point of the bayonet, and completely routed the enemy at that point.

The fight was tremendous for a short time, but finally the enemy gave way on all sides. Three thousand men with field and other officers surrendered. A large amount of small arms, ordnance, and batteries were taken. Six thousand of the enemy gained the rear of our army on the Jalapa road and were pursued. We lost two hundred and fifty, killed and



BATTLE OF SIERRA GORDO.

wounded, and among the latter was Gen. Shields. The Mexican loss was about one hundred more than ours, besides those taken prisoners. We captured thirty pieces of cannon, much ammunition, and the private baggage and money chest of Santa Anna, containing twenty thousand dollars.

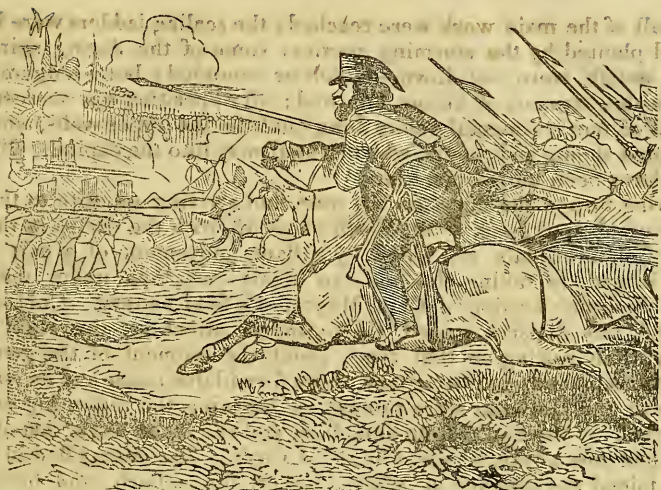
Battle of Churubusco.

August 18, 1847, at 8 o'clock in the morning, the batteries of the enemy opened upon the hacienda of San Antonio, where Gen. Worth was posted. This cannonading was heavy. The air was shaken by the heavy explosions, while houses and even strong fortifications were shattered to pieces and fell in thundering ruins, beneath the showers of shot and shells. Almost all of the streets were swept by bullets and large bombs which burst in the air, and hurled slugs, shot, and fragments among our ranks, making sad havoc. But the Yankees were not frightened yet. Every battery and gun on both sides roared away with horrible sublimity, and actually shook the ground for miles around, and their reverberations rolled with grandeur along the lofty ridges of the mountains. Now the battle raged higher and higher, and hundreds fell to rise no more. This dreadful carnage was kept up for six hours, when the darkness of night closed the scene, and the cannons ceased their roar.

In the morning, firing was heard, and soon a messenger came, saying that Gen. Worth had carried the whole line of fortifications at Contreras.

When the force reached San Pablo, another action commenced, and at the same time Worth's cannons were heard roaring away at Churubusco. The flower of both armies were now engaged in terrible combat. The rattling of the musketry, the clash of arms, the deafening roar of the cannon, and the groans of the dying, made the scene truly awful!

Scott was in the midst of danger encouraging his men, while Worth and Twiggs were cheering their soldiers on. Thus one of the severest conflicts ever witnessed on this continent, raged with increasing power for two



BATTLE OF CHURUBUSCO.

hours. Finally our forces gained full possession of all the works, and the enemy fled in dismay to the city. Gen. Worth followed them almost to the gates.

Soon after this, Santa Anna sent flags, proposing a suspension of hostilities. Negotiations took place, and an armistice was adopted.

It appears that as soon as the propositions of Trist were considered in a grand council of ministers and others, Santa Anna, on the 4th and 5th, without giving any notice to Gen. Scott, commenced again fortifying the city, directly in opposition to the armistice.

Battle of Mexico.

Preparatory to storming Chapultepec, it was thought best to capture the Mills. Our forces moved towards the enemy and soon met them. There was much energy manifested on both sides. The enemy several times were reinforced, and the action becoming much more general than was expected, Gen. Scott called to our aid, from the distance of three miles, Gen. Pillow, with his remaining brigade (Pierce's), and then Riley's brigade of Twiggs' division. These forces approached with great rapidity; but the victory was won just as Gen. Pierce reached the ground. Thus again were our forces victorious.

The first step was to carry the Castle of Chapultepec. The bombardment and cannonade, under the direction of Capt. Huger, were commenced early on the morning of the 12th of September, and before night a good impression had been made on the castle and its outworks.

The advance of our men, though necessarily slow, was unwavering, over rocks, chasms, and mines, and under the hottest fire of cannon and musketry. The enemy were steadily driven from shelter to shelter. The retreat allowed not time to spring a single mine, without the certainty of blowing up friend and foe. Those, who, at a distance, attempted to apply matches to the long trains, were shot down by our men.

There was death below as well as above ground. At length the ditch

and wall of the main work were reached ; the scaling ladders were brought up and planted by the storming parties ; some of the daring spirits, first in the assault, were cast down—killed or wounded ; but a lodgement was soon made ; streams of heroes followed ; all opposition was overcome, and several of our regimental colors flung out from the upper walls, amid long-continued shouts and cheers, which sent dismay into the capital. No scene could have been more animating.

Having turned the forest on the west, and arriving opposite to the north centre of Chapultepec, Gen. Worth came up with the troops in the road, under Col. Trousdale, and aided by a flank movement of a part of Garland's brigade in taking the one-gun breastwork, then under the fire of Lieut. Jackson's section of Capt. Magruder's field battery. Continuing to advance, this division passed Chapultepec, attacking the right of the enemy's line, resting on that road, about the moment of the general retreat consequent upon the capture of the formidable castle and its outworks.

Worth and Quitman were prompt in pursuing the retreating enemy—the former by the San Cosme aqueduct, and the latter along that of Belen. Each had now advanced some hundred yards. The enemy fled in dismay. Scott joined the advance of Worth, within the suburb, and beyond the turn at the junction of the aqueduct with the great highway from the west, to the gate of San Cosme. At this junction of roads, we first passed one of those formidable systems of city defence spoken of above, and it had not a gun ! Within those disgarnished works our troops were engaged in a street fight against the enemy posted in gardens, at windows, and on house-tops—all flat, with parapets.

Quitman, supported by Shields and Smith—Shields badly wounded at Chapultepec and refusing to retire—as well as by all the officers and men of the column—continued to press forward under flank and direct fires ; carried an intermediate battery of two guns, and then the Belen or southwestern gate, before 2 o'clock in the afternoon, but not without severe loss, increased by his steady maintenance of that position.

About 4 o'clock next morning (Sept. 14), a deputation of the *ayuntamiento* (city council) waited on Gen. Scott to report that the federal government and the army of Mexico had fled from the capital some three hours before, and to demand terms of capitulation in favor of the church, the citizens, and the municipal authorities. Scott promptly replied, that he would sign no capitulation ; that the city had been virtually in our possession from the time of the lodgments effected by Worth and Quitman the day before ; that he regretted the silent escape of the Mexican army ; that he should levy upon the city a moderate contribution, for special purposes ; and that the American army should come under no terms, not self-imposed—such only as its own honor, the dignity of the United States, and the spirit of the age should, in his opinion, imperiously demand and impose.

At the termination of the interview with the city deputation, Worth and Quitman were ordered to advance slowly and cautiously (to guard against treachery) towards the heart of the city, and to occupy its stronger and more commanding points. Quitman proceeded to the great Plaza or square, planted guards, and hoisted the colors of the United States on the national palace, containing the halls of Congress and executive apartments of federal Mexico.

Soon after we entered, and were in the act of occupying the city, a fire was opened upon us from the flat roofs of the houses, from windows and

corners of streets, by some 2,000 convicts, liberated the night before by the flying government—joined by, perhaps, as many more soldiers, who had disbanded themselves and thrown off their uniforms. This unlawful war lasted for more than twenty-four hours, in spite of the exertions of the municipal authorities, and was not put down till we had lost many men, including several officers, killed or wounded, and had punished the miscreants.

Battle of Huamantla.

After the brilliant achievements of the American forces in and around the city of Mexico, there was little to do excepting to clear the great thoroughfares of the multitudes of guerillas that infested them. Some sharp engagements occurred between Mexico and Vera Cruz before these bodies of robbers could be dispersed. One of these battles took place at the town of *Huamantla*.

Gen. Lane having arrived at Perote, early in October, was there joined by Capt. Walker and his command, both advanced together on the Puebla road till they reached the town of Dreyes, at which place Capt. Walker, by order of the commanding General, took up his line of march to Huamantla, by way of the town of San Francisco and Guapastla. On his arrival at Huamantla, a sanguinary engagement took place in the streets, between the force of Capt. Walker, consisting of 250 men, and that of the Mexicans, numbering 1,600.

The result of this contest was the total expulsion of the enemy from the town, and its occupation by our valiant little army, which lost in the battle only six men, but the gallant Walker, after performing prodigies of valor, and feats of the most daring character, fell in single combat, pierced by the spear of an enraged father who was goaded to actual frenzy by the death of his son, whose fall by the arm of Capt. Walker he had just witnessed. The father rushed forward, heedless of all danger, to revenge his child's death, and attacking the Captain with almost irresistible violence, plunged his spear into his body and slew him almost instantly. In this engagement the Mexicans lost 200 men and three pieces of artillery. The latter were thrown into a gully adjoining the town, by the victors. At the battle of Huamantla an interesting struggle occurred between the Indiana Volunteers and a detachment of the 1st Pennsylvania Regiment, as to who should first reach town and plant the American flag on the walls. Lieut. Beany and Private Stobbs, of Pennsylvania, were successful.

After the achievement of their object, which was the dispersion of the enemy, for which they were despatched to Huamantla, the Americans evacuated the place and directed their course to Pinal, on the Puebla road, which they reached without any opposition. There, meeting with Gen. Lane, the combined American force continued its march upon Puebla.

They found this city in a state of insurrection, and accordingly entered it in platoons—delivering at every step a constant and well-directed fire of musketry, which ceased not till the enemy retired, and order had been restored in every quarter.

Battle of Atlixco.

Gen. Lane, with a considerable detachment, after a forced march from Perote, ten leagues distant, reached the vicinity of Atlixco on the evening of October 19; and after fighting his way through the forces of Gen. Rea,

to a summit overlooking the town, he there posted his artillery, and for three-quarters of an hour threw shot and shell into the "most thickly populated parts," the bright light of the moon enabling the practised gunners to fire with terrific effect. The crash of the walls and roofs of the houses, when struck by our shot and shells, was mingled with the roar of artillery. Two hundred and nineteen Mexicans were killed, and three hundred wounded, while our own loss was only one killed and one wounded. It was thought necessary to strike these people with terror, because their city had been the refuge and headquarters of guerillas, whence many an expedition had issued against our troops.

Expedition to Tehuacan—Narrow Escape of Santa Anna.

The detachment, consisting of 350 men and officers, under the command of Gen. Lane, left Mexico on the 18th of January. Maj. Polk, Col. Hays, and Capt. Crittenden, accompanied it. Passing Chalco and Rio Frio, the band took a circuitous route to Puebla, where it arrived on the 21st.

Leaving Puebla at dark the same day, the company took the road to Vera Cruz as far as Amazoque, where Gen. Lane took a road entirely unknown to any one but himself and the guide. It was little better than a mule path over rocky hills, and after a forty mile march, the troops arrived next morning at the hacienda of Santa Clara. They were then informed that their object was to take Santa Anna, who was then at Tehuacan, distant forty miles, with 150 men. In order that the Mexican chieftain might not obtain information of the presence of our troops in this section of the country, the General ordered every Mexican in the hacienda, and every one found on the road during the day to be arrested and kept close until they left in the evening.

After leaving the hacienda at dark, they came upon a party of mounted Mexicans, with a carriage, whose occupant bore a passport from Gen. Smith to travel to Orizaba. He was permitted to pass with his attendants.

At dawn, our army were within half a mile of Tehuacan. The report of a solitary gun of the enemy, gave hope that the bird was about to be caged. Our dragoons and riflemen dashed right and left, closing every outlet; while the rangers, with cocked revolvers, galloped toward the Plaza to secure their prey; but their amazement and mortification may be imagined, when they learned that, two hours before, the object of their search had fled to Oajaca, with seventy-five men. With chagrin, they also learned, that the Mexican, whose coach was stopped the evening before, had despatched a messenger across the mountain, to inform Santa Anna that the American troops were on the road, with the intention of making him prisoner. Had it not been for this treachery, the surprise would have been complete.

Occupation of Orizaba.

Leaving Tehuacan, on the 23d, the troops, after a rough march of several miles, came down, February 26, 1848, on the valley of Orizaba. On arriving at the gates, the authorities delivered up the keys; and on entering the city, they discovered the white flag, at the window of every house, and found the entire population assembled to witness their entry, with apparent satisfaction.

Nothing of importance occurred afterwards, until Feb. 2, 1848, when the Treaty of Peace was signed by the American and Mexican Governments.

TREATY

OF PEACE, FRIENDSHIP, LIMITS, AND SETTLEMENT,

BETWEEN

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND THE MEXICAN REPUBLIC.

Concluded at Guadalupe Hidalgo, February 2, and Ratified, with the Amendments, by the American Senate, March 10, 1848.

THE TREATY.

In the name of Almighty God :

The United States of America and the United Mexican States, animated by a sincere desire to put an end to the calamities of the war which unhappily exists between the two Republics, and to establish on a solid basis relations of peace and friendship, which shall confer reciprocal benefits on the citizens of both, and assure the concord, harmony and mutual confidence wherein the two people should live as good neighbors, have, for that purpose, appointed their respective Plenipotentiaries ; that is to say, the President of the United States has appointed N. P. TRIST, a citizen of the United States, and the President of the Mexican Republic has appointed Don LOUIS GONZAGA CUEVAS, Don BERNARDO CONTO, and Don MIGUEL ATRISTAIN, citizens of the said Republic, who, after a reciprocal communication of their respective powers, have, under the protection of Almighty God, the Author of Peace, arranged, agreed upon and signed the following Treaty of Peace, Friendship, Limits and Settlement, between the United States of America and the Mexican Republic.

ARTICLE I.

There shall be a firm and universal peace between the United States of America and the Mexican Republic, and between their respective countries, territories, cities, towns and people, without exception of places or persons.

ARTICLE II.

Immediately on the signature of this Treaty, a Convention shall be entered into between a Commissioner or Commissioners appointed by the General-in-Chief of the forces of the United States, and such as may be appointed by the Mexican Government, to the end that a provisional suspension of hostilities shall take place ; and that in the places occupied by the said forces, constitutional order may be re-established, as regards the political, administrative and judicial branches, so far as this shall be permitted by the circumstances of military occupation.

ARTICLE III.

Immediately upon the ratification of the present Treaty, by the Government of the United States, orders shall be transmitted to the commanders of their land and naval forces, requiring the latter (provided this Treaty shall then have been ratified by the Government of the Mexican Republic), immediately to desist from blockading the Mexican ports ; and requiring the former (under the same condition) to commence, at the earliest moment practicable, withdrawing all troops of the United States then in the interior of the Mexican Republic, to points that shall be selected by common agreement, at a distance from the seaports not ex-

ceeding thirty leagues ; and such evacuation of the interior of the Republic shall be completed with the least possible delay ; the Mexican Government hereby binding itself to afford every facility in its power for rendering the same convenient to the troops, on their march, and in their new positions, and for promoting a good understanding between them and the inhabitants. In like manner, orders shall be dispatched to the persons in charge of the Custom Houses at all ports occupied by the forces of the United States, requiring them (under the same condition) immediately to deliver possession of the same to the persons authorized by the Mexican Government to receive it, together with all bonds and evidences of debt for duties on importations and on exportations, not yet fallen due. Moreover, a faithful and exact account shall be made out, showing the entire amount of all duties on imports and on exports, collected at such Custom Houses, or elsewhere in Mexico, by authority of the United States, from and after the day of the ratification of this Treaty by the Government of the Mexican Republic ; and also an account of the cost of collection ; and such entire amount, deducting only the cost of collection, shall be delivered to the Mexican Government, at the City of Mexico, within three months after the exchange of ratifications.

The evacuation of the Capital of the Mexican Republic by the troops of the United States, in virtue of the above stipulation, shall be completed in one month after the orders there stipulated for shall have been received by the Commander of the said troops, or sooner if possible.

ARTICLE IV.

Immediately after the exchange of ratifications of the present Treaty, all castles, forts, territories, places and possessions, which have been taken and occupied by the forces of the United States during the present war, within the limits of the Mexican Republic, as about to be established by the following article, shall be definitely restored to the said republic, together with all the artillery, arms, apparatus of war, munitions and other public property, which were in the said castles and forts when captured, and which shall remain there at the time when this Treaty shall be duly ratified by the Government of the Mexican Republic. To this end, immediately upon the signature of this Treaty, orders shall be despatched to the American officer commanding such castles and ports, securing against the removal or destruction of any such artillery, arms, apparatus of war, munitions, or other public property. The City of Mexico, within the inner line of intrenchments surrounding the said city, is comprehended in the above stipulations, as regards the restoration of artillery, apparatus of war, &c.

The final evacuation of the territory of the Mexican Republic by the forces of the United States shall be completed within three months from the said exchange of ratifications, or sooner if possible ; the Mexican Republic hereby engages, as in the foregoing Article, to use all means in its power for facilitating such evacuation, and rendering it convenient to the troops, and for promoting a good understanding between them and the inhabitants ;

If, however, the ratification of this Treaty by both parties should not take place in time to allow the embarkation of the troops of the United States to be completed before the commencement of the sickly season, at the Mexican ports on the Gulf of Mexico, in such case a friendly arrangement shall be entered into between the General-in-Chief of the said troops and the Mexican Government, whereby healthy and otherwise suitable places, at a distance from the ports not exceeding thirty leagues, shall be designated for the residence of such troops as may not yet have embarked, until the return of the healthy season. And the space of time here referred to as comprehending the sickly season, shall be understood to extend from the first day of May to the first day of November.

All prisoners of war taken on either side, on land or on sea, shall be restored as soon as practicable after the exchange of the ratifications of the Treaty. It is also agreed that if any Mexicans should now be held as captives by any savage tribe within the limits of the United States, as about to be established by the following article, the Government of the said United States will exact the release of such captives, and cause them to be restored to their country.

ARTICLE V.

The boundary line between the two Republics shall commence in the Gulf of Mexico, three leagues from land, opposite the mouth of the Rio Grande, otherwise called Rio Bravo del Norte, or opposite the mouth of its deepest branch, if it should have more than one branch emptying directly into the sea ; thence up the middle of that river, following the deepest channel, where it has more than one, to the point where it strikes the southern boundary of New Mexico ; thence westwardly, along the whole southern boundary of New Mexico (Which runs north of the town called *Paso*.) to its western termination ; thence northward along the western line of New Mexico, until it intersects the first branch of the River Gila ; or if it should not intersect any branch of that river, then to the point on the said line near-

est to such branch, and thence in a direct line to the same) thence down the middle of the said branch and of the said river, until it empties into the Rio Colorado; thence across the Rio Colorado, following the division line between Upper and Lower California, to the Pacific Ocean.

The southern and western limits of New Mexico, mentioned in this article, are those laid down in the map entitled "Map of the United Mexican States, as organized and defined by various acts of the Congress of said Republic and constructed according to the best authorities. Revised edition. Published at New York in 1847, by J. Disturnell."

Of which map a copy is added to this Treaty, bearing the signatures and seals of the undersigned Plenipotentiaries. And in order to preclude all difficulty in tracing upon the ground the limit separating Upper from Lower California, it is agreed that the said limits shall consist of a straight line, drawn from the middle of the Rio Gila, where it unites with the Colorado, to a point on the coast of the Pacific Ocean—distant one marine league due south of the southernmost point of the port of San Diego according to the plan of said port, made in the year 1782, by Don Juan Pantoja, second sailing master of the Spanish fleet, and published at Madrid in the year 1802, in the Atlas to the voyage of the schooner *Sutil* and *Mexicana*, of which plan a copy is hereunto added, signed and sealed by the respective Plenipotentiaries.

In order to designate the boundary line with due precision, upon authoritative maps, and to establish on the ground landmarks which shall show the limits of both Republics, as described in the present article, the Governments shall each appoint a Commissioner and Surveyor, who, before the expiration of one year from the date of the exchange of ratification of this Treaty, shall meet at the port of San Diego, and proceed to run and mark the said boundary in its whole course to the mouth of the Rio Bravo del Norte. They shall keep journals and make out plans of their operations; and the result agreed upon by them shall be deemed a part of this Treaty, and shall have the same force as if it were inserted therein. The two Governments will amicably agree regarding what may be necessary to these persons, and also as to their respective escorts, should such be necessary.

The boundary line established by this article shall be religiously respected by each of the two Republics, and no change shall be made therein, except by the express and free consent of both Nations, lawfully given by the General Government of each, in conformity with its own Constitution.

ARTICLE VI.

The vessels and citizens of the United States shall, in all time, have a free and uninterrupted passage by the Gulf of California, and by the river Colorado; and not by land, without the express consent of the Mexican Government.

If, by the examinations that may be made, it should be ascertained to be practicable and advantageous to construct a Road, Canal, or Railway, which should, in whole or in part, run upon the river Gila, or upon its right or its left bank, within the space of one marine league from either margin of the river, the Governments of both Republics will form an agreement regarding its construction, in order that it may serve equally for the use and advantage of both countries.

ARTICLE VII.

The river Gila, and the part of the Rio del Norte lying below the southern boundary of New Mexico, being agreeably to the Fifth Article, divided in the middle between the two republics, the navigation of the Gila and of the Bravo, below said boundary shall be free and common to the vessels and citizens of both countries; and neither shall, without the consent of the other construct any work that may impede or interrupt in whole or in part, the exercise of this right—not even for the purpose of favoring new methods of navigation. Nor shall any tax or contribution, under any denomination or title be levied upon vessels or persons navigating the same, or upon merchandise, or effects transported thereon, except in the case of landing upon one of their shores. If, for the purpose of making said rivers navigable, or for maintaining them in such a state, it should be necessary or advantageous to establish any tax or contribution, this shall not be done without the consent of both Governments.

The stipulations contained in the present article shall not impair the territorial rights of either republic, within its established limits.

ARTICLE VIII.

Mexicans now established in territories previously belonging to Mexico, and which remain for the future, within the limits of the United States, as defined by the present Treaty, shall be free to continue where they now reside, or to remove, at any time, to the Mexican Repub-

lie, retaining the property which they possess in the said territories, or disposing thereof, and removing the proceeds wherever they please, without their being subjected, on this account to any contribution, or tax whatever.

Those who shall prefer to remain in said territories, may either retain the title and rights of Mexican citizens, or acquire those of citizens of the United States. But they shall be under the obligation to make their selection within one year from the date of the exchange of ratifications of this Treaty; and those who shall remain in the said territories, after the expiration of that year, without having declared their intention to retain the character of Mexicans shall be considered to have elected to become citizens of the United States.

In the said territories, property of any kind, now belonging to Mexicans not established there shall be inviolably respected. The present owners, the heirs of these, and all Mexicans who may hereafter acquire said property by contract, shall enjoy, with respect to it, guaranties equally ample as if the same belonged to citizens of the United States.

[In place of the following Article, the Senate has inserted the third Article of the Treaty between France and the United States, for the cession of Louisiana, which provides that the inhabitants of the ceded territory shall be admitted to all the rights and privileges of citizenship, in accordance with the principles of the Constitution, as soon as Congress shall determine; and that in the meantime, they shall be protected in the enjoyment of their liberty, property and religious belief.]

ARTICLE IX.

The Mexicans who in the territories aforesaid, shall not preserve the character of citizens of the Mexican Republic, conformably with what is stipulated in the preceding article, shall be incorporated into the Union of the United States, and admitted as soon as possible, according to the principles of the Federal Constitution, to the enjoyment of all the rights of citizens of the United States. In the meantime they shall be maintained and protected in the enjoyment of their liberty, their property, and the civil rights now vested in them, according to the Mexican laws. With respect to political rights, their condition shall be on an equality with that of the inhabitants of the other territories of the United States, and at least equally good as that of the inhabitants of Louisiana and the Floridas, when these provinces, by transfer from the French Republic, and the Crown of Spain, become territories of the United States.

The most ample guaranty shall be enjoyed by all ecclesiastics and religious corporations, or communities, as well in the discharge of the offices of their ministry, as in the enjoyment of their property of every kind whether individual or corporate. This guaranty shall embrace all temples, houses and edifices dedicated to the Roman Catholic worship; as well as all property destined to its support, or to that of schools, hospitals or other foundations for charitable or beneficent purposes. No property of this nature shall be considered as having become the property of the American Government, or as subject to be by it disposed of, or diverted to other causes.

Finally, the relations and communications between Catholics living in the territories aforesaid, and their respective ecclesiastic authorities, shall be open, free and exempt from all hindrance whatever, even although such authorities should reside within the limits of the Mexican republic, as defined by this Treaty; and this freedom shall continue so long as a new debarcation of ecclesiastical districts shall not have been made, conformably with the laws of the Roman Catholic Church.

ARTICLE X.

(EXPUNGED.)

All grants of land made by the Mexican Government, or by the competent authorities, in Territories previously appertaining to Mexico, and remaining for the future within the limits of the United States, shall be respected as valid, to the same extent that the same grants would be valid if the Territories had remained within the limits of Mexico. But the grantees of land in Texas put in possession thereof, who by reason of the circumstances of the country, since the beginning of the troubles between Texas and the Mexican Government, may have been prevented from fulfilling all the conditions of their grants, shall be under the obligation to fulfil the said conditions within the periods limited in the same respectively, such periods to be now counted from the date of the exchange of ratifications of this Treaty; in default of which, said grants shall not be obligatory on the State of Texas, in virtue of the stipulations contained in this Article.

The foregoing stipulation in regard to grantees of land in Texas, is extended to all grantees of land in the territories aforesaid, elsewhere than in Texas, put in possession under such grants; and in default of the fulfillment of the conditions of any such grant, within the new period which, as is above stipulated, begins with the day of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty, the same shall be null and void.

The Mexican Government declares that no grant whatever of lands in Texas has been made since the second day of March, one thousand eight hundred and thirty-six; and that no grant whatever of lands in any of the territories aforesaid, has been made since the thirteenth day of May, one thousand eight hundred and forty-six.

ARTICLE XI

Considering that a great part of the territories which, by the present Treaty, are to be comprehended for the future within the limits of the United States, is now occupied by savage tribes, who will hereafter be under the control of the Government of the United States, and whose incursions within the territory of Mexico would be prejudicial in the extreme, it is solemnly agreed that all such incursions shall be forcibly restrained by the Government of the United States, whensoever this may be necessary; and that when they cannot be prevented, they shall be punished by the said Government, and satisfaction for the same shall be exacted—all in the same way, and with equal diligence and energy as if the same incursions were committed within its own territory, against its own citizens.

It shall not be lawful, under any pretext whatever, for any inhabitant of the United States to purchase or acquire any Mexican, or any foreigner residing in Mexico, who may have been captured by Indians inhabiting the territory of either of the two republics, not to purchase or acquire horses, mules, cattle, or property of any kind, stolen within the Mexican territory, by such Indians: nor to provide such Indians with fire-arms or ammunition by sale or otherwise.

And in the event of any person or persons captured within Mexican territory by Indians, being carried into the territory of the United States, the Government of the latter engages and binds itself in the most solemn manner, so soon as it shall know of such captives being within its territory, and shall be able so to do, through the faithful exercise of its influence and power to rescue them and return them to their country, or deliver them to the agent or representative of the Mexican Government. The Mexican authorities will, as far as practicable, give to the Government of the United States notice of such captures; and its expenses incurred in the maintenance and transmission of the rescued captives; who, in the mean time, shall be treated with the utmost hospitality by the American authorities at the place where they may be. But if the Government of the United States, before receiving such notice from Mexico, should obtain intelligence, through any other channel, of the existence of Mexican captives within its territory, it will proceed forthwith to effect their release and delivery to the Mexican agent, as above stipulated.

For the purpose of giving to these stipulations the fullest possible efficacy, thereby affording the security and redress demanded by their true spirit and intent, the Government of the United States will now and hereafter pass, without unnecessary delay, and always vigilantly enforce, such laws as the nature of the subject may require. And finally, the sacredness of this obligation shall never be lost sight of by the said Government, when providing for the removal of Indians from any portion of said Territories, or for its being settled by the citizens of the United States; but, on the contrary, special care then shall be taken not to place its Indian occupants under the necessity of seeking new homes, by committing those invasions which the United States have solemnly obliged themselves to restrain.

ARTICLE XII.

In consideration of the extension acquired by the boundaries of the United States, as defined in the fifth article of the present Treaty, the Government of the United States engages to pay to that of the Mexican Republic the sum of fifteen millions of dollars in the one or the other of the two modes below specified.

The Mexican Government shall at the time of ratifying this treaty, declare which of these two modes of payment it prefers; and the mode so selected by it shall be conformed to by that of the United States.

First mode of payment—Immediately after this Treaty shall have been duly ratified by the Government of the Mexican Republic, the sum of three millions of dollars shall be paid to the said Government by that of the United States, at the City of Mexico, in the gold or silver coin of Mexico. For the remaining twelve millions of dollars the United States shall create a stock, bearing an interest of six per centum per annum, commencing on the day of the ratification of this Treaty by the Government of the Mexican Republic, and payable annually at the City of Washington; the principal of said stock to be redeemable there, at the pleasure of the Government of the United States, at any time after two years from the exchange of ratifications of this Treaty; six months' public notice of the intention to redeem the same being previously given. Certificates of such stock, in proper form, for such sums as shall be specified by the Mexican Government, shall be delivered, and transferable by the said Government to the same by that of the United States.

Second mode of payment—Immediately after this Treaty shall have been duly ratified by the Government of the Mexican Republic, the sum of three millions of dollars shall be paid to the said Government by that of the United States, at the City of Mexico, in the gold or silver coin of Mexico. The remaining twelve millions of dollars shall be paid at the same place and in the same coin, in annual instalments of three millions of dollars each, together with interest on the same, at the rate of six per centum per annum. This interest shall begin to run upon the whole sum of twelve millions from the day of the ratification of the present Treaty by the Mexican Government, and the first of the instalments shall be paid at the expiration of one year from the same day. Together with each annual instalment, as it falls due, the whole interest accruing on such instalment from the beginning shall also be paid.

[Certificates in the proper form for the said instalments, respectively, in sums as shall be desired by the Mexican Government, and transferable by it, shall be delivered to the said Government by that of the United States.]

[N. B. The first of these modes is rejected. The latter is adopted, with the exception of the last paragraph, in brackets.]

ARTICLE XIII.

The United States engage, moreover, to assume and pay to the claimants all the amounts now due them, and these hereafter to become due, by reason of the claims already liquidated and decided against the Mexican Republic, under the Conventions between the two republics severally concluded on the eleventh day of April, eighteen hundred and thirty-nine, and on the thirtieth day of January, eighteen hundred and forty-three; so that the Mexican Republic shall be absolutely exempt, for the future, from all expense whatever on account of the said claims.

ARTICLE XIV.

The United States do farthermore discharge the Mexican Republic from all claims of citizens of the United States, not heretofore decided against the Mexican Government, which may have arisen previously to the date of the signature of this Treaty; which discharge shall be final and perpetual, whether the said claims be rejected or be allowed by the Board of Commissioners provided for in the following article, and whatever shall be the total amount of those allowed.

ARTICLE XV.

The United States, exonerating Mexico from all demands on account of the claims of their citizens mentioned in the preceding article, and considering them entirely and forever canceled, whatever their amount may be, undertake to make satisfaction for the same, to an amount not exceeding three and one-quarter millions of dollars. To ascertain the validity and amount of those claims, a Board of Commissioners shall be established by the Government of the United States, whose awards shall be final and conclusive; provided, that in deciding upon the validity of each claim, the Board shall be guided and governed by the principles and rules of decision prescribed by the first and fifth articles of the unratified Convention, concluded at the City of Mexico on the twentieth day of November, one thousand eight hundred and forty-three; and in no case shall an award be made in favor of any claim not embraced by these principles and rules.

If, in the opinion of the said Board of Commissioners, or of the claimants, any books, records or documents in the possession or power of the Government of the Mexican Republic, shall be deemed necessary to the just decision of any claim, the Commissioners, or the claimants through them, shall, within such period as Congress may designate, make an application in writing for the same, be assessed to the Mexican Minister for Foreign Affairs, to be transmitted by the Secretary of State of the United States; and the Mexican Government engages, at the earliest possible moment after the receipt of such demand, to cause any of the books, records or documents so specified, which shall be in their possession or power (or authenticated copies or extracts of the same) to be transmitted to the said Secretary of State, who shall immediately deliver them over to the said Board of Commissioners: provided, that no such application shall be made by or at the instance of any claimant, until the facts which it is expected to prove by such books, records or documents shall have been stated under oath or affirmation.

ARTICLE XVI.

Each of the contracting parties reserves to itself the entire right to fortify whatever point within its territory it may judge proper so to fortify for its security.

ARTICLE XVII.

The treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, concluded at the City of Mexico on the 5th day of April, A. D., 1831, between the United States of America and the United Mexican States, except the additional article, and except so far as the stipulations of the said Treaty may not be incompatible with any stipulation contained in the present Treaty, is hereby revived for the period of eight years from the day of the exchange of ratifications of this Treaty, with the same force and virtue as if incorporated therein; it being understood that each of the contracting parties reserves to itself the right, at any time after the said period of eight years shall have expired to terminate the same by giving one year's notice of such intention to the other party.

ARTICLE XVIII.

All supplies whatever of troops of the United States in Mexico, arriving at ports in the occupation of such troops previous to the final evacuation thereof, although subsequently to the restoration of the Custom-Houses at such ports, shall be entirely exempt from duties and charges of any kind; the Government of the United States hereby engaging and pledging its faith to establish, and vigilantly to enforce all possible guards for securing the revenue of Mexico, by preventing the importation, under cover of this stipulation, of any articles other than such, both in kind and in quality, as shall really be wanted for the use and consumption of the forces of the United States during the time they may remain in Mexico. To this end it shall be the duty of all officers and agents of the United States to denounce to the Mexican authorities at the respective ports any attempts at a fraudulent abuse of this stipulation which they may know of or may have reason to suspect, and to give to such authorities all the aid in their power with regard thereto; and every such attempt, when duly proved and established by sentence of a competent tribunal, shall be punished by the confiscation of the property so attempted to be fraudulently introduced.

ARTICLE XIX.

With respect to all merchandise, effects and property whatsoever, imported into ports of Mexico while in the occupation of the forces of the United States, whether by citizens of either republic, or by citizens or subjects of any neutral nation, the following rules shall be observed:

1. All such merchandise, effects, and property, if imported previously to the restoration of the custom-houses to the Mexican authorities, as stipulated for in the third article of this treaty, shall be exempt from confiscation, although the importation of the same be prohibited by the Mexican Tariff.
2. The same perfect exemption shall be enjoyed by all such merchandise, effects and property, imported subsequently to the restoration of the Custom-Houses, and previously to the sixty days fixed in the following article for the coming into force of the Mexican Tariff, at such ports respectively; the said merchandise, effects, and property, being, however, at the time of their importation, subject to the payment of duties, as provided for in the said following article.
3. All merchandise, effects, and property described in the two rules foregoing, shall, during their continuance at the place of importation, or upon their leaving such place for the interior, be exempt from all duty, tax or impost of every kind, under whatsoever title or denomination. Nor shall they be there subject to any charge whatsoever upon the sale thereof.
4. All merchandise, effects, and property, described in the first and second rules, which shall have been removed to any place in the interior while such place was in the occupation of the forces of the United States, shall, during their continuance therein, be exempt from all tax upon the sale or consumption thereof, and from every kind of impost or contribution, under whatsoever title or denomination.
5. But if any merchandise, effects, or property, described in the first and second rules shall be removed to any place not occupied at the time by the forces of the United States, they shall, upon their introduction into such place, or upon their sale or consumption there, be subject to the same duties which, under the Mexican laws, they would be required to pay in such cases if they had been imported in time of peace, through the maritime custom-houses, and had there paid the duties conformably with the Mexican Tariff.
6. The owners of all merchandise, effects or property described in the first and second rules and existing in any port of Mexico, shall have the right to reship the same, exempt from all tax, impost, or contribution whatever.

With respect to the metals, or other property, exported from any Mexican port while in the occupation of the forces of the United States, and previously to the restoration of the Custom House at such port, no person shall be required by the Mexican authorities, whether general or State, to pay any tax, duty, or contribution upon any such exportation, or in any manner to account for the same to the said authorities.

ARTICLE XX.

Through consideration for the interests of commerce generally, it is agreed that if less than sixty days should elapse between the date of the signature of this Treaty and the restoration of the custom-houses, conformally with a stipulation in the third Article, in such case, all merchandise, effects, and property whatsoever, arriving at the Mexican ports after the restoration of the said custom-houses, and previously to the expiration of sixty days after the signature of this Treaty, shall be admitted to entry; and no other duties shall be levied thereon than the duties established by the Tariff found in force at such custom-houses at the time of the restoration of the same. And to all such merchandise, effects and property, the rules established in the preceding Article shall apply.

ARTICLE XXI.

If, unhappily, any disagreement should hereafter arise between the Governments of the two Republics, whether with respect to the interpretation of any stipulation in this treaty or with respect to any other particular concerning the political or commercial relations of the two nations, the said Governments, in the name of those nations, do promise to each other that they will endeavor, in the most sincere and earnest manner, to settle the difference so arising, and to preserve the state of peace and friendship in which the two countries are now placing themselves; using, for this end, mutual representations and pacific negotiations. And, if, by these means, they should not be enabled to come to an agreement, a resort shall not, on this account, be had in reprisals, aggressions, or hostility of any kind by the one Republic against the other, until the Government of that which deems itself aggrieved shall have maturely considered, in the spirit of peace and good neighborhood, whether it would not be better that such difference should be settled by the arbitration of Commissioners appointed on each side, or by that of a friendly nation. And should such course be proposed by either party, it shall be acceded to by the other, unless deemed by it altogether incompatible with the nature of the difference, or the circumstances of the case.

ARTICLE XXII.

If, (which is not to be expected, and which God forbid!) war shall unhappily break out between the two Republics, they do now, with a view to such calamity, pledge themselves to each other and to the world, to observe the following rules, absolutely, where the nature of the subject permits, and as closely as possible in all cases where such absolute observance shall be impossible.

1. The merchants of either Republic then residing in the other shall be allowed to remain twelve months, (for those dwelling in the interior,) and six months (for those dwelling at the seaports,) to collect their debts and settle their affairs; during which periods, they shall enjoy the same protection, and be on the same footing, in all respects, as the citizens or subjects of the most friendly nations; and, at the expiration thereof, or at any time before, they shall have full liberty to depart, carrying off all their effects without molestation or hindrance; conforming therein to the same laws which the citizens or subjects of the most friendly nations are required to conform to. Upon the entrance of the armies of either nation into the territories of the other, women and children, ecclesiastics, scholars of every faculty, cultivators of the earth, merchants, artisans, manufacturers, and fishermen, unarmed, and inhabiting unfortified towns, villages or places, and in general all persons whose occupations are for the common subsistence and benefit of mankind, shall be allowed to continue their respective employments unmolested in their persons. Nor shall their houses or goods be burnt or otherwise destroyed, nor their cattle taken, nor their fields wasted, by the armed force into whose power, by the events of war, they may happen to fall; but if the necessity arise to take anything from them for the use of such armed force, the same shall be paid for at an equitable price. All churches, hospitals, schools, colleges, libraries, and other establishments, for charitable and beneficent purposes, shall be respected, and all persons connected with the same protected in the discharge of their duties, and the pursuits of their vocations.

2. In order that the fate of prisoners of war may be alleviated, all such practices as those of sending them into distant, incliment, or unwholesome districts, or crowding them into close and noxious places, shall be studiously avoided. They shall not be confined in dungeons, prison ships or prisons; nor be put in irons, or bound, or otherwise restrained in the use of their limbs. The officers shall enjoy liberty on their paroles, within convenient districts, and have comfortable quarters; and the common soldiers shall be disposed in cantonments, open and extensive enough for air and exercise, and lodged in barracks as roomy and good as are provided by the party in whose power they are for its own troops. But if any officer shall break his parole by leaving the district so assigned him, or any other prisoner shall escape from the limits of his cantonment, after they shall have been designated to him, such individual officer

or other prisoner shall forfeit so much of the benefit of this article as provides for his liberty on parole or in cantonment. And if an officer so breaking his parole, or any common soldier so escaping from the limits assigned him, shall afterward be found in arms, previously to his being regularly exchanged, the person so offending shall be dealt with according to the established laws of war. The officers shall be daily furnished by the party in whose power they are, with as many rations, and of the same articles, as are allowed, either in kind or by commutation, to officers of equal rank in its own army; and all others shall be daily furnished with such ration as is allowed to a common soldier in its own service; the value of all which supplies shall, at the close of the war, or at periods to be agreed upon between the respective commanders, be paid by the other party, on a mutual adjustment of accounts for the subsistence of prisoners; and such accounts shall not be mingled with or set off against any others, nor the balance due on them withheld, as a compensation or reprisal for any cause whatever, real or pretended. Each party shall be allowed to keep a commissary of prisoners, appointed by itself, with every cantonment of prisoners, in possession of the other; which commissary shall see the prisoners as often as he pleases; shall be allowed to receive, exempt from all duties or taxes, and to distribute, whatever comforts may be sent to them by their friends; and shall be free to transmit his reports in open letters to the party by whom he is employed. And it is declared that neither the pretence that war dissolves all Treaties, nor any other whatever shall be considered as annulling or suspending the solemn covenant contained in this article. On the contrary, the state of war is precisely that for which it is provided; and during which, its stipulations are to be as sacredly observed as the most acknowledged obligations under the law of nature or Nations.

ARTICLE XXIII.

This treaty shall be ratified by the President of the United States of America, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof; and by the President of the Mexican Republic with the previous approbation of its General Congress; and the ratifications shall be exchanged in the city of Washington, in four months from the date of the signature hereof, or sooner if practicable.

In faith whereof, we, the respective Plenipotentiaries, have signed this Treaty of Peace, friendship, limits, and settlement; and have hereunto affixed our seals respectively. Done in Quintuplicate, at the City of Guadalupe Hidalgo, on the second day of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-eight.

N. P. TRIST,	[L. s.]
LUIS G. CUEVAS,	[L. s.]
BERNARDO CONTO,	[L. s.]
MIG. ATRISTAIN,	[L. s.]

ADDITIONAL AND SECRET ARTICLE of the Treaty of Peace, Friendship, Limits, and Settlement between the United States of America and the Mexican Republic, signed this day by their respective Plenipotentiaries. (Expunged.)

In view of the possibility that the exchange of the ratifications of this Treaty may, by the circumstances in which the Mexican Republic is placed, be delayed longer than the term of four months fixed by its twenty-third article for the exchange of ratifications of the same, it is hereby agreed that such delay shall not, in any manner, affect the force and validity of this Treaty, unless it should exceed the term of eight months, counted from the date of the signature thereof.

This article is to have the same force and virtue as if inserted in the treaty to which this is an addition.

In faith whereof, we, the respective Plenipotentiaries, have signed this additional and secret article, and have hereunto affixed our seals, respectively. Done in quintuplicate at the City of Guadalupe Hidalgo, on the second day of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-eight.

N. P. TRIST,	[L. s.]
LUIS G. CUEVAS,	[L. s.]
BERNARDO CONTO,	[L. s.]
MIG. ATRISTAIN,	[L. s.]

CHAPTER XIII.

PHYSICAL FEATURES.

The Republic of Mexico, as it existed at the time it assumed its independence, extended from the 14th to the 42d parallel of north latitude. It is separated from Guatemala by a line drawn from the foot of Tehuantepec in the Pacific, to the bay of Honduras. Its boundary line with the United States was understood to commence at the mouth of the Sabine river, which is about two hundred miles west of the Mississippi. From this point it ascends that stream to its source in the belt of high land which separates the valley of the Red river from Texas; thence north-west to the Red river: it then ascends the course of that stream to the 100th deg. of W. longitude; and thence strikes off N. to the Arkansas, in the same meridian, up that river to its source; from thence to the source of the Platte river, in 42 deg. N. latitude, and thence almost due W. till it strikes the coast of the Pacific, in latitude 42 deg. N., which is about the line of demarkation between Massachusetts, and Connecticut, and Pennsylvania, and New-York.

Extent of Surface.

At its southern extremity, Mexico is but 130 miles in width. Between Aca-pulco and Vera Cruz it is 280 miles. In latitude 26 deg. between the mouth of the Rio del Norte and the eastern shore of the Gulf of California, it is 725 miles in width; at latitude 30 deg. it is 1200 miles in width, and in latitude 33 deg. it is 1400 miles from the eastern limit of Texas to the Pacific Ocean. From the irregularity of its form it is impossible to determine with precision the superficial contents of Mexico; but, according to the best authorities it may be considered as occupying about 1,200,000 square miles, or more than six times the area of France. In this estimate we do not include the area of Texas, which of itself contains about 500,000 square miles.

Natural Divisions.

This immense country is divided by nature into three regions, each of which is marked by distinct features. The first comprehends the countries lying to the east of the isthmus of Tehuantepec, which is crossed by the meridian of 95 deg. W. Greenwich; we shall call it the eastern region. The second extends from the meridian of 95 deg. in a curved line to the mouth of the Rio del Norte on the east, (26 deg. N. lat.) and to the most northern recess of the Gulf of California (32 deg. N. lat.) on the west; it is the central region, or Anahuac. The third, or northern region, comprehends the countries situated north of a line drawn from the mouth of the Rio del Norte to that of the Colorado.

The Eastern Region.

The eastern region comprehends the plains of Yucatan, the plain of Tobasco and the isthmus of Tehuantepec. The north-eastern extremity of the isthmus of Yucatan, near Cape Catoche, is hardly more than 150 miles from Cape St. Antonio on the is. and of Cuba. Through the strait formed by these headlands,

a current, with considerable velocity, sets in to the north. The northern and western shores of the peninsula have no harbours, but only roadsteads, which during the northern gales are very unsafe, but along the eastern shores there are several harbours. The shores are sandy and flat. The level country extends to a considerable distance inland, whilst the centre of the peninsula is occupied by a range of low hills. The hilly district in the interior, as well as the flat country on the northern coast, has a sandy soil, and no spring water is found from Cape Catoche to the mouth of the Rio de St. Francisco, which empties itself in Campeachy Bay. Its vegetation is scanty; the trees are stunted, and the plants of a languid growth, except during the rainy season, (from May to September;) but as the climate, though exceedingly hot, is healthy, it is much better inhabited and cultivated than the eastern shores.

Plain of Tobasco.

The plain of Tobasco begins on the east at some distance east of Lake Terminos, and extends westward to Patrida Rock, a moderately elevated cape on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico, (98 deg. W. long.) This plain is more than 250 miles long, and extending inland from 50 to 120 miles. Its surface is a dead level, and the soil alluvial. Being very fertile, it is covered with a thick forest of heavy growth, but is little cultivated on account of its being subject to inundations, and generally under water for several months during the rainy season. It seems that this part of Mexico suffers as much from the superabundance of water as other parts for the want of it. To this circumstance, and the great heat of the summer, is the unhealthiness of this tract to be attributed. The Plain of Tobasco is watered by a considerable river, the Rio de Tobasco, and its two branches, the Usumasinta and the Grijolva.

Isthmus of Tehuantepec.

The plain of Tobasco occupies the northern portion and about one half of the isthmus of Tehuantepec. It has a very hot, but rather dry climate, and the soil, though not distinguished by fertility, is capable of producing several tropical plants. It is supposed that an easy line of communication may be established across the isthmus of Tehuantepec between the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific, as the two seas are only 130 miles distant, and the plains adjacent are watered by navigable rivers. This was a favourite idea with Santa Anna.

Anahuac.

The central region of Mexico, commonly called Anahuac, exhibits great variety in its natural features. The eastern coast, which is low and sandy, runs on in a continuous line without being broken by inlets or bays; and consequently it contains no harbours except those formed by the mouth of the river; and even these are only unsafe roadsteads, as the rivers of this coast, with the exception of the Rio Alvarado, have only water enough in the rainy season. North of 22 deg. several rivers of considerable size fall into the sea, but except at their mouths, the coast cannot be approached by vessels, as it is lined by long, low and narrow islands, which lie parallel to, and from two to six miles from it. The channels by which these islands are separated are too shallow to admit even boats. The country adjacent to the shores, and from three to ten miles inland, is very low, but is defended from the sea by sand hills rising from 50 to 200 feet high. The soil is sandy and quite destitute of vegetation. At the back of this low sandy tract the country rises gradually to the foot of an extremely steep ascent, which constitutes the eastern ridge of the extensive table-land farther west. The coun-

try which lies between the shores and the steep ascent varies in width. At Vera Cruz it is only 60 miles wide. Further north it widens till it becomes nearly 180 miles across. This tract is comprehended in what is called the "hot countries." The seasons are divided into the winter, or the season of the north winds, and the summer, or season of the breezes. The former lasts from October to April, during which time the north winds are prevalent, and frequently blow with the force of a hurricane, sometimes for days together: they are the terror of navigators on these shores. During these periods the coast is healthy and the *pomito* or yellow fever ceases. The mean heat of this season is 71 deg. of Fahrenheit, but whilst the north winds are blowing, the thermometer sometimes descends to 60 deg. Rain is not rare during this season, but the showers are only of short duration. During the summer the heat is great; the mean temperature is about 81 deg. The rains are not heavy before June, but in that month they descend in torrents nearly every day for several hours. In July alone about fifteen inches of rain fall, or two-thirds of the mean annual quantity at London.

Ascent to the Table-Lands.

The steep ascent which bounds this tract on the west rises in some places in terraces which lie between the declivities, and in such parts the ascent occupies a considerable space; but in other parts it rises from 5000 to 6000 feet in a distance generally not exceeding ten miles in width, and frequently much less. The acclivity is so steep, that in the whole line there are only two places where it is practicable for carriages, namely at Xalapa, near Vera Cruz, and at Saltillo west of Monterey, though its whole length does not fall short of 600 miles.

Table-Lands.

The physical feature of Mexico is a high table-land, bearing some aspect in this respect to the southern peninsula of India. These immense plains, situated at an elevation of from 6000 to 8000 feet above the level of the ocean, have occasional inequalities of surface; lofty mountains and luxuriant valleys diversify the appearance of the country in some parts; but in general a continuous level, as smooth almost as the ocean, extends for upwards of 1500 miles through the interior of Mexico, and to the territory of the United States. Hence, while the communication between the city of Mexico and the eastern and western sea coasts is extremely difficult, and on some portions of the routes can be carried on only by mules, there is nothing to prevent wheel-carriages from running from the capital to Santa Fe, and thence to St. Louis, or other places on the Mississippi.

On the side of the Pacific, the table-land of Anahuac approaches very near the sea. In some places the high mountain masses advance to the very shores; in others, a narrow level tract intervenes; but the table land is divided from the Gulf of Mexico by a low plain, called the Plain of Cuétlactlan, which extends about 100 miles inland.

The surface of the table-land of Anahuac, which is reached from the Plain of Cuétlactlan by a very rapid ascent, consists of a considerable number of plains with a level or undulating surface. These plains are generally of considerable extent, measuring in length from 40 to 200 miles and more; and in width from 20 to 100 miles. These plains are separated from each other by ranges of hills, which rise to 500 or 600 feet above their level; but the plains themselves vary in their elevation; the most extensive being from 5000 to 9000 feet above the sea-level, whilst some smaller ones are much lower.

That portion of the table-land which spreads from the Plains of *Tlascala* and *Mexico*, south and south-east, and which, as far as the isthmus of Tehuantepec, is called the table-land of *Mixtecapan*, appears not to rise more than 5,000 feet on an average. Towards the Pacific, however, it is indented by wide valleys which extend nearly north and south, and open towards the sea; but even these valleys are of considerable height. The town of Oaxaca, which lies in the principal valley, is 4,800 feet above the sea, and the adjacent higher ground, on which the ruins of the Palace of Mitla are found, is 5,300 feet high. But as we proceed along the sea to the N. W. and approach the harbour of Acapulco, the table-land is broken by deep valleys, which extend east and west. The level of these valleys declines as they approach the Pacific, and at the same time they become narrower. The road from Mexico to Acapulco passes through four of them. The valley of Istla, nearest to the plain of Tenochtitlan, is 3,226 feet, the valley of Mescala 1,696 feet, that of Papagallo 627, and that of Peregrino, nearest the Pacific, is 525 feet above the level of the sea.

The Plain of *Chihuáhua*, which extends along the eastern base of the Sierra Madre, may be considered as a continuation of the table-land of San Louis de Potosi, not being separated from it by a range of mountains or any other marked boundary-line, except that the northern part of the table-land of Potosi (between 23° and 24° N. lat.) gradually assumes that aspect of sterility which characterises the Plain of Chihuáhua. This plain extends from south-south-east to north-north-west more than 600 miles, and is terminated on the north by a line drawn from the Presidio de S. Bernardino to the Paso del Norte, near the parallel of 32°. Its width varies from 150 to 200 miles. At its southern extremity, where it is contiguous to the table-land of San Louis de Potosi, it may be nearly 6,000 feet above the sea-level; but it lowers towards the north. This immense tract of country may be compared with some of the steppes of Asia. We do not know its elevation above the sea, but Humboldt estimates that of the country along the banks of the Rio del Norte at about 2,000 feet, an estimate which appears rather too low than too high. But towards the south the country certainly rises to a much greater height, a fact which is shown by the course of the rivers, which here run in the opposite direction to those of Sonora—namely, from south to north. The surface of this plain is nearly level. The soil is strongly impregnated with nitre, muriate of soda, and carbonate of potash. It is entirely destitute of trees, except along the water-courses, which are skirted by poplars. In the rainy season it is covered with grass, which affords pasture for sheep; in the dry season it is without verdure, except along the rivers. Some portions are covered with small sharp stones. In those districts which are at some distance from the rivers, there are numerous dry salt-lakes, from which large quantities of salt are collected by the inhabitants. These salt lakes render the country excessively unhealthy; for whenever there is any wind, the air is filled with saline particles and dust, which oppress respiration and cause numerous diseases. The rivers, along which alone the cultivated tracts occur, run in beds several feet under the surface of the plain, and all terminate (with the exception of the Rio Conchos) in lakes without outlets, like those in the steppes of Asia. The most remarkable are the Rio de las Casas Grandes, the Conchos, and the Rio Grande of the Plain.

Mountains.

The steep ascent above described constitutes the outer edge of the elevated plains of Anahuac, which extends westward to a great distance. The edge itself is lined by a continuous series of hills, rising in general only to a moderate elevation above the table-lands; but some of them attain a great height, as the Coffre de Perote, near the road leading from Vera Cruz to Mexico, which is 13,415 feet

above the level of the sea, and the peak of Origida, which attains a height of 17,373 feet.

It is in strict geography improper to denominate the mountains of Mexico a prolongation of the Andine chain of South America. So far is this from being the case, that long before the Andes have reached the isthmus of Panama, they have dwindled into inconsiderable hillocks; and in Verragua, the *Sierra de Cantagua* runs in an opposite direction to the Andes, as if to interrupt their extension into North America. In the Mexican province of Oaxaca, the chain occupies the centre of the isthmus. On this part of the chain there is a point so elevated that both the Atlantic and Pacific are visible from it. This would indicate an elevation of 7700 feet above the sea. From eighteen and a half to twenty-one degrees the Cordillera stretches from north to south. Of this chain "the mountain of smoke," a volcano covered with perpetual snow, is one of the most elevated summits in all Mexico. Humboldt estimates it to be 17,735 feet above the level of the sea. There are many other peaks of nearly an equal altitude. The mean elevation of the whole range, of which these summits make a part, is 9842 feet of absolute elevation. The "star mountain," which is the highest peak in all Mexico, and which is visible from Vera Cruz, is 17,876 feet above the level of the sea, and is the first part of the continent which is visible to navigators. From the north-eastern part of the intendency of Mexico, the chain assumes the name of *Sierra Madre*, and then leaving the eastern quarter, it runs north-west to Guanajuato. North of this city it becomes of an extraordinary breadth, dividing immediately into three branches, of which the most eastern runs in the direction of the coast, and is lost in the province of New Leon. The western branch passes to the north as far as the source of the Rio Gila. From its western side many lateral chains stretch south-west to the Gulf of California. The middle branch of the Sierra Madre, which may be viewed as the central chain of the Mexican Alps, stretches northwardly into the province of New Mexico, and finally terminates in latitude 41 deg., where it divides the waters which flow into the Pacific from those which flow into the Atlantic. From this other ranges of mountains meet from different directions, and again spread out northwardly, under the appellation of the Rocky Mountains. No mountain ridge connects the Sierra Madre with the Rocky Mountains.

CHAPTER II.

RIVERS, LAKES, BAYS AND GULFS.

CONSIDERING the extent of Mexico, its large rivers are very few. The table land of Anahuac is nearly destitute of rivers on account of the dryness of the atmosphere and the aridity of the soil. The few streams are only navigable for a short distance from the sea. They descend from great heights, in a comparatively short course, and are very shallow.

Rio Bravo, or Rio Grande del Norte.

This, the chief river in Mexico, rises in lat. 40 d. 12 m. N., and 111 d. 30 m. W. long., immediately west of the sources of the Platte and Arkansas. It has several large tributaries. For two hundred miles above Santa Fe, it runs through a valley bounded on both sides by snowy mountains. The whole course of the Rio del Norte is at least 2000 miles, 540 of which are to the N. W. of Santa Fe. It is not navigable in any part of its course, owing to sand-bars in the flat country,

and to mountains in the upper part of its course. Small boats can ascend only about 200 miles from the Gulf. There is a bar at its mouth with only seven feet of water. Small schooners, however, can ascend to Matamoras.

The author of "Commerce of the Prairies," thus speaks of this river:—

"The famous Rio del Norte is so shallow for the most part of the year, that Indian canoes can scarcely float in it. Its navigation is also obstructed by frequent shoals and rippling sections, for a distance of more than a thousand miles below Santa Fe. Notwithstanding the numerous tributary streams which would be supposed to pour their contents into the Rio del Norte, very few reach their destination before they are completely exhausted. The most considerable, *Rio Puerco*, although at least a thousand miles in length, is dry at its mouth for a portion of the year. It is, then, no wonder that this 'Great River of the North' decreases in volume of water as it descends. In fact, above the region of tide-water, it is almost everywhere fordable during most of the year. Its banks are generally very low, and yet, owing to the disproportionate width of the channel, (which is generally 350 yards,) it is not subject to inundations. Its only rises are those of the annual freshets, caused by the melting of the snows in the mountains."

Rio Sacramento.

This river empties into the Bay of San Francisco, in Upper California. One of its principal branches rises in the Sierra Nevada, about 300 miles N. E. from the Bay; another large branch has its source in the same range, about 200 miles N. of the Bay.

The Colorado.

This river empties into the Gulf of California. It is made up of several small ones. It is a little above 600 miles in length. It receives the appellation of Colorado or coloured river, from its waters being coloured by the rains falling on a soil of red clay, through which it passes. It is a deep and copious stream, capable of being navigated by square-rigged vessels, for but about 30 miles. Throughout its whole course, its banks are said to be entirely destitute of timber; and it is doubtless true that for 300 miles there is not a tree growing near it of ten inches in diameter.

Rio Grande—called also the Rio Santiago.

This is one of the most considerable rivers in Mexico. It rises to the east of the volcano of Toluca, and in the first part of its course is called *Rio Lerena*. It passes through the lake of Chapala, and pursues a rapid course to the Pacific, forming an Estuary at its mouth in which there are several islands; on its southern side is the well known port of San Blas. The whole length of the river is rising 500 miles.

Rio Panuco.

This river may be considered as rising in the lake of Zumpango, adjacent to the city of Mexico. In its upper course it is so very swift, and so frequently interrupted by shoals and rapids, that it is said to be navigable for boats only in a few places. In the upper part it is called Tula. It becomes navigable, however, about 170 miles from its mouth. Ten miles lower down it is joined by the Rio Lamoin, which flows from the west, and is then called the Rio Panuco. Vessels drawing not more than twelve feet of water may go up to Panuco, eighty miles

from its mouth. It enters the Gulf of Mexico at Tampico, after a winding course of about 400 miles. The port of Tampico is formed by its mouth, but is crossed by a bar, which has generally not more than twelve feet of water.

The other rivers in Mexico are not of much importance. None of them are navigable for any considerable distance.

LAKES.

The lakes are very numerous, and occupy a considerable portion of the plains; one tenth of the valley of Mexico is covered by lakes. The largest lake is that of Chapala, which is traversed by the Rio Santiago. It is about 90 miles long and from 12 to 18 miles wide.

BAYS AND GULFS.

The chief Bays or Gulfs are those of Tehuantepec, and the large inland gulf of California. The first lies on the Pacific, in 16 d. N. lat., and is 125 miles across. The Gulf of California is a very large inland sea, stretching 880 miles from S. E. to N. W. The entrance to this Gulf, between Cape St. Lucas, the S. E. point of California, and the mouth of the El Ruso on the eastward, is 200 miles across; and from thence as far north as lat. 27 d., the average breadth is from 120 to 150 miles; from thence to the head it seldom exceeds 60 miles. The printed maps of this Gulf are all sadly erroneous.

Gulf of Mexico.

This Gulf extends between the 18th and 30th parallels of north latitude, and is nearly of a circular form, but somewhat elongated from east to west. In the latter direction it is 1,150 miles long; in the transverse direction it is about 930. It opens in a S. E. direction, between the peninsula of Yucatan and Florida, or between the Capes of Catoche and Sable, which are about 465 miles distant from each other. The island of Cuba divides this opening into two channels; the one to the S. W. communicating with the Sea of the Antilles, and the other to the N. E. with the Atlantic, by means of the straits of the Bahamas or Florida. South from the mouth of the Rio del Norte round about to the mouth of the Rio Alvarado, an extent of 600 miles, the Gulf does not present a single good port, as Vera Cruz is merely a bad anchorage amidst shallows. The Mexican coast may be considered as a sort of dyke, against which, the waves, continually agitated by the trade winds blowing from E. to W., throw up the sands carried by the violent motion. The rivers descending from the Sierra Madre have also contributed to increase these sands, and the land is gaining on the sea. No vessel drawing more than 12 1-2 inches of water can pass over these sand-bars without danger of getting aground. In the middle of the Gulf, the winds blow regularly from the N. E., but they vary considerably on approaching the shore.

CHAPTER III.

CIVIL DIVISIONS, CITIES, TOWNS, ETC.

The territory of Mexico is made up of nineteen states, and the territories of New Mexico, California, Colima and Tlascala.

I.—*Yucatan*.*

This is the most easterly state of Mexico. The isthmus which connects it with the continent of North America, is but 120 miles wide. Its population is about 500,000. The soil is very fertile, and when under proper cultivation, produces great crops of cotton, indigo, tobacco, pepper, sugar cane, Indian corn, and other kinds of grain. The scarcity of water in the central parts of the state renders the crops variable; and years occur in which the poorer classes are driven to seek subsistence on roots. Cattle, fowls and bees are very numerous; wax and honey plentiful; but there are no mines. The forests abound with wild beasts. The principal article of commerce is logwood.

Merida, the capital, is about twenty-four miles from the sea, on an arid plain. It carries on some commerce in agricultural produce, by means of the small harbour of Sisal, which has but little depth of water. Population, 32,000.

Campeche, on the bay of the same name, has a harbour, but which is not safe. It exports a considerable quantity of wax and Campeche wood. Population, 19,000.

II.—*Tabasco*.

The State of Tabasco extends from the Rio Pacaitun to the Rio Huasacualco, more than 200 miles along the shore, and about 50 or 60 miles inland. The surface is level, and mostly subject to inundations.

Victoria, or Tabasco, the capital, is built on an island at the mouth of the Rio Tabasco. It has a harbour, and carries on some trade in the produce of the country. The population is 4000.

III.—*Chiapa*.

The State of Chiapa, until the year 1825, belonged to Guatemala; in that year it joined the confederation of the States of Mexico. Chiapa is separated from the Gulf of Mexico by Tabasco. The population consists principally of Indians, who speak five different languages.

Ciudad de las Casas (formerly Ciudad Real,) the capital, is situated in a fertile valley: it has a university, and 3800 inhabitants.

At the north-eastern angle of this state, near the boundary of Yucatan and Tabasco, in a thick forest, are ruins, apparently those of a large city. The character of the building, as well as of the ornaments, differs greatly from that of all other ancient edifices in America. These remains are called the ruins of Palenque, from a neighbouring village of that name. It was here that Messrs. Stephens and Catherwood made most of their ingenious researches.

IV.—*Oaxaca*.

The State of Oaxaca comprehends the southern portion of the isthmus of Tehuantepec and the table-land of Mixtecapán: it extends along the Pacific, with a coast line of more than 360 miles. It is one of the best cultivated and most populous parts of Mexico, and produces, in addition to cochineal, great quantities of indigo and cotton. Silk is got from a species of wild silk-worm.

Oaxaca, the capital, situated in a fertile valley, 4,800 feet above the sea, is well built, and contains some fine squares and public edifices; it has also an aqueduct.

* For an account of the Political revolution that has lately occurred in Yucatan, see Appendix.

Tehuantepec, situated at the mouth of the Rio Chimalapa, has a harbour, the entrance of which is very dangerous, and not deep enough for large vessels. The population is 7,000 persons. There are remains of ancient buildings in several parts of this state.

V.—Vera Cruz.

The State of Vera Cruz comprehends a small portion of the isthmus of Tehuantepec, and the greater part of the plain of Cuatlachtlan, with the eastern declivity of the table-land of Anahuac; a small portion of the table-land, and also the mountains of Orizava and Cofre de Perote belong to it.

Vera Cruz is the principal port in Mexico. It lies on a low sandy shore, intersected with marshes which extend for miles along the coast. The port is, properly speaking, an open roadstead, protected only by a shoal, and is very dangerous in winter, when the north winds blow. It is very small, and can contain but about 30 vessels.

The little island of San Juan de Ulloa, which is entirely covered with the fortress, is some five or six hundred yards from the mole or quay at Vera Cruz, between which points all the commercial shipping enters. A very narrow channel affords the only passage for vessels of war, which must of necessity pass immediately under the guns of the fort. The fortress of San Juan de Ulloa has always been looked upon as one of the strongest in the world. When it was blown up, in 1839, by the French, the armament was in a most wretched condition, and as to scientific engineers and artillerymen, there were none. Even then it would have been no holiday affair had it not been for the accidental explosion of the magazine.

But Vera Cruz is much more effectually protected than by all her fortifications, by the norther and vomito (yellow fever.) The former have been the terror of all seamen since the discovery of the country. The latter prevails on all the Atlantic coast of Mexico during the whole year, and with the greatest malignancy for two thirds of the year; and it so happens that the few months of comparative exemption from the ravages of the yellow fever, are precisely those when the norther prevails with the most destructive violence. To illustrate the ferocity of these northers, we quote the following incident from a recent traveller. "Soon after my arrival," says he, "I gave to a servant some clothing to be washed; but he soon returned with my bundle and informed me that the washer-woman refused to take the clothes unless I would release her from all responsibility if a norther should carry them away: whereupon assuming the hazard, on the following day, upon short notice, the winds came and scattered my clothing like kites in the air, and I never saw it more." The inhabitants, on the first coming of the storm, are compelled immediately to tightly bar their doors and windows, stopping up the key-holes and every other crevice, to prevent light articles in the house from being disturbed, as also their eyes from being put out by the sand.

The health of Vera Cruz is perhaps worse than that of any other place on the habitable globe, and it is calculated that one-fifth of its inhabitants annually perish. The sickness of Vera Cruz is attributed to the increased intensity of the sun's heat, reflected from the high white sand-hills that overlook the town, as also from the poisonous vapour which arises from the stagnant waters of the lakes and swamps which surround the city. The venomous insects that infest that hot region, aid likewise in no small degree, by never leaving the inhabitants to repose, and constantly causing feverish excitement and irritation to promote disease.

The city of Vera Cruz is enclosed by a continued wall of coral-stone and brick. The streets are paved with stone shipped from Quincy, Mass. Th

town is laid off in squares, and the houses are a solid mass of buildings covering the whole squares. Many of the houses are large, some three stories high, built in the old Spanish or Moorish styles, and generally enclosing a square court with covered galleries. They have flat roofs, glass windows, and are well adapted to the climate. The whole town, as well as the castle, is built of coral, and the lime that forms the cement, is of the same material. There is one tolerably good square, of which the government-house forms one side and the principal church the other. The foot-paths are frequently under piazzas, a great accommodation to travellers, protecting them from the sultry heat of the sun and the heavy rains, which descend in torrents during the wet season. Sixteen cupolas are counted from the sea, but only six churches are now in use. Indeed, nearly all the churches, nunneries and monasteries have been abandoned since the place has been lost to the Spaniards. Nothing is more repulsive to strangers accustomed to the bustle of American cities, than the death-like appearance of the place. Of any other city it would be a disgrace to say the grass grows in the streets, but here it would be considered a compliment, for no vegetation is to be observed even for miles around, and fish is the only article of provision not brought from a distance. The only water fit to drink is what falls from the clouds, and is preserved in tanks. Living at the hotels is very expensive. Milk is scarcely to be had, as not a cow is kept within many miles, and what perhaps is peculiar to Vera Cruz, there is not a garden even near it. Society here is extremely confined, and morality at a very low ebb. Few of the European merchants are married. The streets are filled with carrion vultures, and act as scavengers for the place. The population does not exceed 6,500. It was here that Cortes landed to commence his ever-memorable expedition, although this is not the town which he founded of that name, which was about six miles distant.

Xalapa, or Jalapa, the capital of the state, is situated on the steep declivity of the table-land, about 4,340 feet above the level of the sea. It is a pleasant town, and the depôt between Vera Cruz and Mexico. An annual fair is held here, which is much frequented. It contains eight churches, a good school for drawing, and 13,000 inhabitants.

Perote, situated on the edge of the table-land, 8,300 feet above the sea, has a population of 10,000. It contains one of the four castles or fortresses erected by the Spanish government in Mexico. A portion of the prisoners taken in the recent Santa Fe expedition, were sent to this place.

Alvarado, at the mouth of the Rio Alvarado, has a small harbour, some little trade, and 1,600 inhabitants.

VI.—*Puebla*.

The State of Puebla comprehends a large portion of the table-land of Tlascal, and of its southern declivity, having only a low and comparatively narrow tract along the coast of the Pacific, about 65 miles long.

La Puebla de los Angeles, the capital, contains between 60,000 and 70,000 inhabitants. It is well built, with straight and wide streets, and contains many fine houses. The cathedral, which stands in a large square, is a magnificent edifice, and is rich in gold and silver ornaments.

VII.—*Tlascal*.

The territory of Tlascal is enclosed by the state of Puebla. It contains a population of Indians, and of mixed races, which, even under the Spanish dominion, enjoyed several privileges which had been granted to them for having aided the Spaniards in the conquest of Mexico under Cortes. Their privileges

and independence have been confirmed by the republican government. The inhabitants are chiefly occupied with agriculture.

Tlascala, or Tlaxcallan, the capital, contains a population of 4,000 persons. The walls were erected long before the arrival of the Europeans.

VIII.—Mexico.

The State of Mexico lies between 16 d. 34 m. and 20 d. 10 m. N. lat. The best cultivated portion is the table-land, where wheat and the fruits of Europe are grown, as well as the maguey and the Indian corn. The southern districts are very thinly peopled. In these fertile valleys the tropical productions succeed.

Tezcuco, the capital, is situated on the plain of Tenochtitlan, on the east side of the lake of Tezcuco, and about thirty miles from Mexico. It has some manufactures of cotton, and about 5,000 inhabitants.

Acapulco is the sea-port of Mexico on the Pacific. It was the seat of the Spanish trade with the Phillipine Isles, and the store-house of immense wealth. Its port is a basin cut from the solid rock, and is capable of receiving the largest vessels. It is very hot and unhealthy, and contains about 4000 inhabitants, chiefly negroes.

IX.—The Federal District.

The Federal District is surrounded by the State of Mexico, and comprehends only the environs of the metropolis, in the centre of the plain or valley of Tenochtitlan.

The Valley of Mexico.

Midway across the continent, somewhat nearer the Pacific than the Atlantic, at an elevation of nearly 7800 feet, is the celebrated valley of Mexico. It is of an oval form, about 120 miles in circumference, and is encompassed by a towering rampart of porphyritic rocks, which nature seems to have provided, though ineffectually, to protect it from invasion. The appearance of the valley is that of an oval basin surrounded on all sides with mountains of every degree of elevation, and of every variety of appearance, from a little rugged promontory to Pococatopetl, as some say, the highest mountain in Mexico, and even the highest upon the continent, covered with perpetual snow, 10,400 feet higher than the city itself. No less than five lakes spread over the valley, occupying at least one-tenth of its surface. "Thus at one view," remarks a late writer, "bursts upon the astonished traveller, village, city, lakes, plains, and mountains, altogether forming a *tout ensemble* of the most imposing character. I could only admire the extensive fields spread out before me, for the valley of Mexico is justly renowned for its fertility. Thus, while I might upon the right hand be attracted by an extensive meadow appropriated for grazing, on the left, I would be greeted by the pleasing prospect of miles in extent, and as far as the eye could reach, of lands cultivated alone in maize or Indian corn. And while now I would arrive at verdant nooks, with acres of land cultivated in *chili* or red pepper—of which some individuals, from a single crop of chili alone, realize the immense sum of \$50,000,—and then I would come upon the green and flowery fields, cultivated to feed the cochineal insect."

"The view of the valley of Mexico is certainly beautiful and grand, and but for the painful absence of timber, and the vast sterility of much of its territory, might perhaps be the most magnificent sight anywhere to behold upon the face of the globe. As I progressed, I was soon brought in bold view by my close contact with the lake region. One of these lakes, near the city of Mexico, I was in

former, was thirty miles in length, and has the appearance of a bay or port to the great city. There is on the border of the lake hot springs, the waters of which are used for bathing purposes. As the diligencia entered on the great causeway which separates Lake Cholco from Xochicalo, a passenger informed me that this bridge was not only made by the Aztecs, but was the same identical track which Cortes and his travellers passed on the 8th of November, 1519, the day on which they first set foot in the city of Mexico."

Description of the City.

The city of Mexico is said to be the finest built city on the American continent. In the principal streets the houses are all constructed on the strictest architectural rules. The first buildings were erected by Cortes, who did every thing well, from writing a couplet to conquering an empire. Many of the finest buildings in Mexico are still owned by his descendants. The public square is said to be unsurpassed by any in the world; it contains some twelve or fifteen acres paved with stone. The Cathedral covers one entire side, the Palace another; the western side is occupied by a row of very high and substantial houses, the second stories of which project into the street the width of the pavement; the lower stories are occupied by the principal retail merchants of the city. The most of these houses were built by Cortes, who, with his characteristic sagacity, and an avarice which equally characterized him in the latter part of his life, selected the best portion of the city for himself.

The President's Palace, formerly the palace of the viceroys, is an immense building of three stories high, about five hundred feet in length, and three hundred and fifty wide; it stands on the site of the palace of Montezuma, which was destroyed by Cortes. It is difficult to conceive of so much stone and mortar being put together in a less tasteful and imposing shape. It has much more the appearance of a cotton factory or a penitentiary, than what it really is. Only a very small part of this palace is appropriated to the residence of the President. All the public offices are here, including heads of the different departments, ministers of justice, treasury, &c. The halls of the deputies and of the Senate, are in the same building, and also that of the botanic garden.

The Cathedral, which occupies the site of the great idol temple of Montezuma, is five hundred feet long by four hundred and twenty wide. Like all the other churches in Mexico, it is built in the gothic style. The walls, of several feet in thickness, are made of unhewn stone and lime.

The streets of Mexico are uncommonly wide, much more so than is necessary, considering that they are not obstructed, as in our city, by drays and wagons. The side-walks are uncommonly narrow. The streets are all paved with round stones; the side-walks with very rough flat ones. The houses on the principal streets are all two and three stories high. The walls are built of rough stones, of all shapes and sizes, and large quantities of lime mortar. The streets cross each other at right angles, dividing the whole city into squares. Each one of these squares is called a street, and has a separate name. Instead of designating the street in its whole extent by one name, each side of every square has a different name, and names which sound to Protestant ears very much like a violation of the third article of the decalogue, such as the street of Jesus, and the street of the Holy Ghost. In most of these streets there is a church, which gives name to the street on which it stands. In many instances these churches and convents cover the whole square, not with separate buildings, but one single edifice, with the usual court or open space in the centre. There is not, I believe, a house in the city without this court, of greater or less dimensions, in proportion to the size of the building. There is only one door on the lower story, and that high enough for a coach to pass through. It opens

into the court through which you pass to the steps leading to the upper story where alone every body lives, except the lowest classes. In all the establishments of the better classes, the basement story is only occupied by the servants, and as lumber rooms, and what appears very strange, as stables. There is not in the whole city such a separate building as a stable. "In visiting Count Certuna," says Mr. Thompson, "whose whole establishment is altogether princely, I found this court on the ground floor used as a stable, and passed through rows of horses and carriages, to make my way to the most spacious halls, filled with fine paintings of the great masters, and furnished throughout in a style altogether gorgeous." In some of the large private buildings, thirty and forty different families reside; each one having rented one or two rooms, all entering at the only outside door into the court, which is the common property of all, and from which each one has an entrance into his own rooms on the ground floor or the gallery above, which runs all around the building. The area of Mexico does not exceed two miles in length and a mile and a half in width, a very small space to be occupied by a population of nearly 200,000. But it is not at all surprising, when you see thirty or forty families all huddled away in one house, and consider what a large number sleep in the open air in that delightful climate. How pure must be the atmosphere when Mexico is so remarkably healthy, notwithstanding such a crowded and filthy mode of living, and with a tropical sun shining upon the moist surface of the whole valley!

It is a little curious, that whilst the buildings and population of Mexico are thus crowded into so small a space, and that rents are three times as high as in New-York, yet all around the city there is a vacant ground, and as dry as the city itself, which may be had almost for the taking. "I was riding out with a friend one evening," says Mr. Thompson, "when he showed me a square containing between five or six acres, just on the outskirts of the city, and not more than half a mile from the public square, which he had just purchased for four hundred dollars!"

The city is partly supplied with provisions and vegetables by small boats, which bring them over the Lake of Tezcuco; but as the lake is very shallow in January and February, the supply is then generally stopped, and the city depends, especially for vegetables, on the supply by the canal of Iztapalapan, which leads from the Lake of Xochimilco to the town. This canal is narrow, but always covered with small canoes loaded with fruits and vegetables: it passes through the chinampas, or floating gardens, which, in their present state, are long narrow strips of ground, redeemed from the surrounding swamp, and intersected by small canals. They are well cultivated, abound in fine vegetables, and their edges are planted with poplars. It is stated that they originally consisted of wooden rafts, covered with earth, and floated about in the lake when it was full of water, whence their name is derived. At present they are stationary, but it is said that there are still some floating gardens in the Lake Xochimilco.

The Halls of the Montezumas.

Montezuma II. ascended the Mexican throne A. D. 1502, at the age of 23, before Mexico had been discovered by Europeans. He died 30th June, 1520, in the 42d year of his age, of wounds inflicted by the Spanish discoverers, whom he had invited to his royal palace. Historians agree in admiring his character.

On ascending the throne, not content with the spacious residence of his father, he erected another, much more magnificent. So vast was this great structure, that, as one historian informs us, the space covered by its terraced roof, might have afforded ample room for thirty knights to run their courses in a regular tourney. His father's palace, although not so high, was so extensive that the visitors were too much fatigued in wandering through the apartments ever to

see the whole of them. The palaces were built of red-stone, ornamented with marble, the arms of the Montezuma family (an eagle bearing a tiger in his talons) being sculptured over the main entrance. Crystal fountains, fed by great reservoirs on the neighbouring hills, played in the vast halls and gardens, and supplied water in hundreds of marble baths in the interior of the palaces. Crowds of nobles and military chieftains were continually sauntering through the halls, or loitering away their hours in attendance on the court. Rich carvings in wood adorned the ceilings, beautiful mats of palm-leaf covered the floors. The walls were hung with cotton richly stained, the skins of wild animals, or gorgeous draperies of feather-work, wrought in imitation of birds, insects, and flowers, in glowing radiance of colours. Clouds of incense from golden censers diffused intoxicating odours through splendid apartments, occupied by nine hundred and eighty wives and 5,000 slaves of Montezuma.

This building was totally destroyed by Cortes, and the President's Palace now stands on its site.

X.—*Querétaro.*

The State of Querétaro, lying between 20 d. and 22 d. N. lat., comprehends a great part of the table-land of Querétaro, which, within the state, is about 6,300 feet above the level of the sea. It is comparatively populous and fertile, producing all the grains and fruits of Mexico.

Querétaro, the capital, is distinguished by its fine buildings and its aqueduct. The population amounts to about 40,000, of which number one third are Indians.

XI.—*Guanaxuato.*

The State of Guanaxuato extends over a portion of the table-land of Querétaro, which, within its limits, has an elevation of about 6000 feet. It is the smallest of the Mexican states, but the most populous, and probably also the richest.

Guanaxuato, the capital, is situated in a ravine in the midst of the mines, 7,294 feet above the sea. It contains a mint and many fine buildings.

XII.—*Michoacan.*

The State of Michoacan was formerly the intendencia of Valladolid; but this name was changed at the time of the union of the Mexican states, into that of an ancient Indian kingdom, which existed here before the Spanish conquest.

Valladolid, at present called Morelia, in honour of the Mexican general Morelos, is the capital. It is situated in a plain 6,434 feet above the sea; and contains 18,000 inhabitants. Some of the public buildings are very good; among others the college, which is esteemed one of the best in Mexico: the cathedral is a magnificent edifice, and the aqueduct, by which the town is supplied with good spring-water, is handsomer than that of Mexico, and built of stone.

XIII.—*Colima.*

The territory of Colima is situated on the shores of the Pacific, where it occupies a coast line of about 100 miles. Its surface, properly speaking, is not mountainous, but a plain, on which there are several high hills and the elevated volcano of Colima. The climate is consequently hot; and, as the soil is fertile, it yields many tropical products, particularly cotton of excellent quality. Nearly all the inhabitants are Indians, who, at their own request, have a gov

government independent of that of the state of Xalisco, to which they formerly belonged.

Colima, the capital, is situated at the foot of the volcano of the same name, in a very fertile plain.

XIV.—*Jalisco or Xalisco.*

The State of Jalisco or Xalisco was formerly the province of Guadalajara. The low country north of the river Santiago, consists of extensive plains, and contains very few hills. The countries along the shores of the Pacific are more covered with forests than any other part of Mexico.

Guadalajara, the second city in Mexico, is situated in a fertile plain not far from the banks of the Rio Santiago, below the great cataracts. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants. It has a fine cathedral, many churches and convents; and the streets are lined by colonnades. The commerce of Guadalajara with the adjacent countries and the port of San Blas, is considerable.

San Blas, or San Blasio, is a good harbour at the mouth of the Rio Santiago, on a rock, surrounded by low marshes, which render the climate very unhealthy. During the rains it is almost entirely abandoned by the inhabitants; who, at other times, amount to about 3,000 in number. Vessels are built here; and much salt is collected in the neighbourhood. The trade is considerable, but has lately much decreased.

XV.—*Zacatecas.*

The State of Zacatecas comprehends the northern portion of the table-land of Querétaro, and the southern part of the plain of Chihuahua; the boundary line between them running some miles north of the town of Zacatecas, and thence to Sombrerete. Both portions have a very arid soil, but the table-land of Querétaro contains many fertile districts.

Zacatecas, the capital, stands in a ravine between high hills, all of which contain veins of silver. Its churches are large buildings, the stone work of which is richly decorated. The number of inhabitants is estimated at more than 30,000. A great portion of the jalap exported from Mexico is collected in the neighbouring hills and valleys.

XVI.—*San Luis Potosi.*

The State of San Luis Potosi comprehends the southern portion of the plain of Chihuahua, and its declivity towards the gulf of Mexico and the plain of Monterey. The surface is in many places uneven and rugged, and little cultivated. The numerous mines produce silver, copper, tin, and brimstone.

San Luis Potosi, the capital, is situated in a pleasant valley near the sources of the river Tamoin, a branch of the Rio Panuco. It contains 16,000 inhabitants, who carry on some trade.

XVII.—*Durango.*

The State of Durango occupies the highest and widest part of the Sierra Madre, and also a considerable portion of the plain of Chihuahua. The eastern declivity of the Sierra Madre is the more fertile district, and it is better cultivated and more populous than the plain, which is nearly a desert, except along the courses of the rivers.

Durango, at present called La Ciudad Victoria, is a regularly built town, situated on a plain more than 6,848 feet above the sea. In winter the thermometer

descends many degrees below the freezing point. The inhabitants, amounting to 22,000, are industrious, and are partly occupied in the manufacture of wool leather and in cabinet-work. There are some mines in the neighbourhood, and a mint in the town. Numerous herds of cattle are brought from the plain to the market of Durango.

XVIII.—*New Leon.*

The State of New Leon (Nuevo Leon) extends over a large part of the plain of Monterey and the mountain tract lying between it and the Rio del Norte. The plain is very little known. It appears to consist of extensive levels, here and there intersected by hills of moderate elevation, and exhibits a good deal of fertility, but is little cultivated. There are few important mines in the mountains of the northern districts. Large herds of cattle pasture on the plains. The population, which is very small, consists chiefly of whites.

Monterey, the capital, with 15,000, is the seat of a Bishop, and derives its importance from the neighbourhood of the mines.

XIX.—*Tamaulipas.*

The State of Tamaulipas extends along the coast of the gulf of Mexico from the Rio Panuco to the Rio del Norte, which separates it from Texas. The coast, which is above 350 miles in length, is lined with long lagunes from four to eighteen miles wide, which are separated from the sea by long narrow bands of sand. This circumstance, added to the small depth of the sea along the whole extent of coast, and the bars which occur at the mouths of the rivers, renders the navigation along the shore of this State very difficult even for small vessels, and quite impracticable for large ones. The width of the country averages about 70 miles, except along the banks of the Rio Grande del Norte, where it may be from 150 to 180 miles wide. The surface is mostly level, and little elevated above the sea. The soil along the beach is sandy, but more inland it is of considerable fertility, and partly covered with forests. Other portions are prairie land without trees.

Tampico de Tamaulipas is situated on a peninsula or neck of land about four hundred yards wide, formed by the river Panuco on one side, and the Laguna del Bapintero on the other. It is about six miles from the sea. At the mouth of this river there is an insignificant fortification of three or four old guns, more likely to injure those who discharge them, than those against whom they are directed. The bar at the mouth of the river admits of vessels drawing from seven to nine feet water, according to the winds and season of the year.

Tampico is susceptible of being made a very strong military position, at a very moderate expense, by simply cutting a ditch and running a breast-work across the neck of land above and below the town, and strengthening the breast-work by bastions at either extremity of the line, at the river and at the lake. On the south-eastern side, or nearest the sea, the land is low, and across the neck a canal has been cut, which unites the river with the lake. This canal could readily be made to form the basis of the fortifications on that side. On the upper side or entrance from Altamira, the land is high and offers some remarkably fine sites for defence of that approach, the only approach that could be used by an enemy not having command of the river.

Tampico is not absolutely commanded by any height near enough to throw an effective point blank shot, though from the hills below the town, on the opposite side of the river, shot and shells can be thrown into the south-eastern part of the town. Immediately opposite the town, an extensive salt-marsh and lake prevent any approach of an enemy's force.

In its present state of defence, Tampico could make little or no resistance against a force of two thousand men, whilst the same number as a garrison could—when the defensive works above mentioned were completed—by having the command of the river, hold it against any force that could be brought against it.

Nuevo Santander, with a population of 3,000, is situated on the banks of the Rio Santander, about thirty miles from the sea. The harbour is at Soto la Marina, further down the river, which has only from six to seven feet water on the bar at its mouth.

Matamoras, on the Rio Grande del Norte, has a harbour for small vessels, and is a new and thriving commercial town. Population, 10,000.

XX.—*Cohahuila.*

The State of Cohahuila is between Nuevo Leon and Chihuahua, entirely on the plain of Chihuahua. The southern districts have a level surface, interrupted by a few hills of moderate elevation, which occur at great distance from each other. The soil is very arid, and the vegetation scanty. These southern districts serve only as a pasture-ground for sheep, and are nowhere cultivated to any extent. The northern districts surrounding the river Sabinos, an affluent of the Rio del Norte, have a hilly and broken surface; the hills seem to form ranges, running parallel to the Rio del Norte, and connecting the Bolson de Mapimi with the mountains north of Monterey. This tract appears to contain a large portion of fertile and cultivatable land. There are some silver mines near Santa Rosa. Texas, or the country between the Rio del Norte and the Sabine river, formerly belonged to this State. Horses, mules, and wool are exported to the United States.

Saltillo, the late capital, is situated at the southern extremity of the State, on an arid plain. The only carriage-road by which the plain of Chihuahua can be reached from the shores of the gulf of Mexico, passes through this place. It contains about 12,000 inhabitants, and has several good streets communicating at right angles with the Plaza, in the centre of which is a large reservoir, which supplies the town with water.

Monclova, the present capital, with 3,600 inhabitants, has some trade with the adjacent countries.

XXI.—*Chihuahua.*

The State of Chihuahua comprehends a large portion of the plain of Chihuahua, and likewise the mountain-ridge of the Sierra Madre, between 26 d. N. lat. and its northern extremity. The plain is not fertile, but it affords spacious sheep-walks, and wool is the staple article of the State. The pastures are covered with coarse grass; wheat, Indian corn, and cotton are raised on the lands along the rivers which are irrigated. The Sierra Madre abounds in silver, and contains many rich mines, such as Parral, Batopilas, Cosiquiriachi. Other mines, also said to be rich, have lately been opened in the mountainous tract which is called the Bolson of Mapimi, and which occupies the eastern districts contiguous to the State of Cohahuila. The northern district of the State and part of the Bolson de Mapimi also are still occupied by Indians, among whom the Camanches are excellent horsemen, and much dreaded by the white settlers.

Chihuahua, the capital, stands in an arid plain, on the banks of a small rivulet which falls into the Rio Conchos, about 700 miles from the city of Mexico. The houses are well built, and the streets regular. The cathedral is a very large edifice. A good aqueduct brings the water of a river, which is about eight miles distant, to the town, and is so judiciously contrived that even the highest parts of the city are supplied. The ore procured from the mines to the west, in the

Sierra Madre, is brought to Chihuahua, where the metal is extracted. The population amounts to 25,000 inhabitants.

XXII.—*New Mexico.*

The province of New Mexico, of which Santa Fe is the capital, was one of the first establishments of the Spaniards in the Mexican portion of America. By some tradition, it is related that a small band of adventurers proceeded thus far north shortly after the capture of the city of Mexico.

One of the early Spanish historians, writing of the events of 1550, mentions New Mexico as a known province, though as yet only inhabited by aborigines. But the only paper found in the archives of Santa Fe, which gives any clue to its first settlement, bears date September 21, 1595. This is a petition to establish a colony on the Rio del Norte, which we infer was carried into effect during the following spring.

The territory of New Mexico, or of Santa Fe, is situated in the north, bounding on the unsettled territory of the United States. It comprehends only the valley of the Rio del Norte, from 32 d. N. lat. to its source. It contains only two fertile tracts along the banks of the river, and these are separated by a desert, which spreads out 170 or 180 miles between 32 d. 30 m. and 35 d. N. lat. The northern and larger of these extends above 150 miles to the north of 35 d. N. lat., and the climate is very cold: it produces wheat and corn and the fruits of northern Europe; it affords a great abundance of pasture for cattle and horses. This portion is the district of Santa Fe. The southern tract of fertile land is of very moderate extent, lying between 32 d. and 32 d. 30 m. N. lat.: it is called the district of the Paso del Norte. It abounds in excellent fruit, especially grapes, which, as well as the wine made of them, are in high repute all over Mexico. Wheat and maize also are grown extensively. The inhabitants are whites, but on the mountains and deserts, which extend on both sides of the valley, there are several independent Indian tribes, which are at enmity with the settlers.

Santa Fe, the capital, is a small town, with 3,600 inhabitants. This is the first place that the caravans from St. Louis, in Missouri, come to after traversing the plains on the eastern side of the Rocky Mountains. It has of late years become a great mart of trade, which is carried on by the caravans of mules and horse waggons loaded with goods of various kinds from the United States. It is 1,020 miles west of New Orleans, and 1,131 miles north of the city of Mexico.

Albuquerque is a thriving town.

Paso del Norte, the only town in the southern district, contains about 5,000 inhabitants.

XXIII.—*Occidente.*

The State of Occidente, or of Cinaloa and Sonora united, comprehends the low plain which extends, along the Pacific, from 23 deg. north latitude northward to the banks of the Rio del Fuerte, and, in addition, the whole of the hilly region which lies north of it. The former once constituted the province of Cinaloa, and the latter that of Sonora. The country along the coast is generally low and flat, with a sandy soil, which, however, yields good crops of corn and wheat when it can be irrigated. The principal products in the interior districts are wheat, Indian corn, and sugar; cochineal is collected in small quantities. The mountains contain abundance of gold and copper. South of the Rio del Fuerte, the population chiefly consists of whites, the number of Indians being inconsiderable: but to the north of the river the whites form only a small part of the population, the Indians being as fifteen to one of the white inhabitants. The most numerous tribes are the Yaquis, the Mayos, Opatas, and the Apaches

They inhabit towns and villages of their own, separate from the whites, and are governed by their own magistrates.

Villa del Fuerte, the capital, situated on the banks of the Rio del Fuerte, contains about 4,000 inhabitants.

Guaymas, (28 d. north latitude) is the best harbour in Mexico, being protected on all sides by high hills, and capable of sheltering a large number of vessels. The water abreast of the pier is about five fathoms deep, and there are still deeper soundings farther off. The climate is healthy. The population is upwards of 3,000.

CHAPTER IV.

CLIMATE—SOIL—VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS—ANIMALS.

CLIMATE.

If climate were to be regulated by the mere circumstance of latitude, all the southern portion of Mexico would feel the heat of the torrid zone; whilst the internal provinces—the Californias and Texas, would enjoy a moderate temperature. But this is not the case. Climate is affected by a variety of causes, and is regulated more by elevation than by latitude. Of this truth Mexico affords a striking exemplification. The whole of the coasts possess a warm climate, adapted for West Indian productions; the temperature of the plains, elevated not more than 984 feet above the level of the sea, is about 77 deg. Fahrenheit. These regions are denominated *tierras calientes*, and produce in abundance sugar, indigo, cotton, and bannanas.

On the declivity of the table-land of Mexico, at an elevation of about 4000 feet, there reigns a perpetual soft spring temperature, which never varies more than four or five degrees Fahrenheit. The extremes of heat and cold are thus equally unknown. This region is denominated the “temperate regions,” where the mean heat for the whole year is from 68 to 70 degrees.

The third temperature is that of the table-land of Anahuac, or elevated plains of Mexico, and denominated the “cold regions.” This elevated tract, comprehending upwards of 176,000 square miles within the tropic of cancer, and whose altitude is more than 709 feet, has a mean temperature of 62 degrees. In the city of Mexico the thermometer has been known to fall several degrees below the freezing point; but this is a very rare occurrence, and the winters are usually as mild as at Naples.

The climate of what are denominated the internal provinces, especially that of New Mexico, differs essentially from that of the capital. Here severe winters succeed warm summers. The reason of this is plain. New Mexico is a long and not very wide valley, bounded on all sides except the south, by ranges of great and lofty mountains, covered with eternal snows, especially to the north of Santa Fe. In the peninsula of California the climate is generally sultry and the sky for months in the year cloudless, except a line of mist about the western horizon at evening, giving the most brilliant sunsets conceivable. The remainder of the year, the winter season, is rainy and oftentimes tempestuous, with winds that frequently assume the character of terrible tornadoes. Upper California has a most delightful climate. A dry and rainy season—continual breezes in the winter from the S. W., and in the summer from the N. W., with only 30 d variation of climate during the twelve months.

SOIL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.

Were the soil of Mexico watered by more frequent rains, no country cultivated by human industry could exceed it; but unfortunately, however fertile the soil, the want of water diminishes the abundance of the harvests. Only two seasons are known as far north as 28 degs., namely, the rainy and the dry season; the former commencing in June or July, and continuing till the end of September. The farmer has seldom to complain of too great humidity, and from 24 to 28 d., the rains are still less frequent, and of shorter duration. The droughts compel the inhabitants to have recourse to artificial irrigation.

The variety of indigenous Mexican productions is immense; indeed, there hardly exists a plant on the face of the globe which is not capable of being cultivated in this country. Those which are most generally cultivated may be divided into two kinds: those which serve for home consumption, and those which furnish raw materials for manufactures and commerce.

The Banana.

The banana is to all the inhabitants of the tropics what the variety of grain is to Europe, and what rice is to the inhabitants of Hindustan and China. Wherever the mean heat exceeds 75 degrees, the fruit of the banana becomes one of the most important objects of cultivation for human subsistence.

Maize, or Indian Corn.

Maize is the principal food of the Mexicans. When the maize harvest is poor, either from want of rain or premature frost, famine is general; but of all the gramina sown, none is so unequal in its produce as maize. The price of maize varies from fifty cents to four dollars the hundred pounds. In a country where there are no magazines, and where the inhabitants live merely from hand to mouth, the people suffer terribly when there is a short crop of Indian corn; they then feed on unripe fruits, berries and roots.

Wheat.

Of European Cerealia, wheat holds the first rank in Mexico, and was introduced by a negro slave of Cortes, who found three or four grains of it among the rice that was served to maintain the Spanish army. These grains were sown before the year 1530. The wheat harvests are rich in proportion to the quantity of water procured from the rivers by means of irrigating canals. In lands thus artificially cultivated, the produce of wheat is astonishing. Humboldt gives 25 bushels to one as the annual produce of the whole average crop of Mexico; but when irrigation is properly conducted, and the year is good, from 60 to 80 bushels for one have been frequently produced; yet, notwithstanding this astonishing productiveness, wheat in Mexico is considerably dearer than it is in the English market.

Potatoes.

The potatoe, though a native of Mexico, was not known there at the time of Montezuma. It is much cultivated in the highest part of the central land, and is admirably adapted for these elevated and dry regions. The Mexicans, like the Peruvians, preserve their potatoes for whole years by drying them in the sun. They grow to an enormous size, often to more than twelve inches in diameter.

Other Vegetables.

All the garden stuffs of Europe are now cultivated in Mexico in addition to those peculiar to the climate. Orange and citron trees flourish vigorously in the central regions; olive groves are numerous; the cultivation of grapes is most successfully prosecuted in some districts, where large quantities of wine are made. The figs of Lower California form a considerable article of export to the other states of the Republic; and the dates which grow there are much esteemed. Lemons, pomegranates, quinces, and pine-apples, abound in Sonora, and other districts. The most important beverage of the Mexican Indians, is the juice of the *Agave*, a plant which is extensively cultivated there. This plant, which is scarcely five feet in height, yields a honey-like juice at the time of the effervescence of the plant. At this period, an incision is made, from which a juice exudes, which continues running for three months. This juice ferments in three or four days, and is then called *pulque*; the liquor resembles cider in taste, and is esteemed an excellent and nutritive drink. The consumption of this liquor is immense. A very intoxicating brandy called *mesical*, is formed from the pulque. The agave shrub also supplies the place of the hemp of Asia, and the papyrus of Egypt, as all the Mexican manuscripts sent to Europe are written on paper made of the fibres of agave leaves.

Sugar.

The cultivation of sugar has made rapid progress in Mexico within the present century. "The possibility," says Ward, "of cultivating a sugar cane beneath the tropics by a system of free labour, has often been canvassed; but I know no country except Mexico where the experiment has been fairly tried upon a large scale. The plantations were all worked, in the first instance, by slaves who were purchased at from three to four hundred dollars each. The difficulty of ensuring a sufficient supply during a war with a maritime nation, and the number of slaves who perished from the sudden change of climate on the road to the coast, induced several of the great proprietors to endeavour to propagate a race of free labourers, by giving liberty to a certain number of slaves annually, and encouraging them to intermarry with the native Indians, which they soon did to a very great extent. The plan was found to be so economical, that on many of the large estates there was not a single slave in 1808. Such is the fertility of equinoctial Mexico, that Humboldt estimated that all the sugar consumed in France, say 44,140,000 pounds, might be produced on a surface of 55 square miles. As it is, the greatest part of the sugar is consumed in Mexico itself. The crop is estimated at about 50,000,000 pounds.

Cotton.

Although the soil is highly favourable to the cultivation of cotton, yet the quantity cultivated is comparatively small. Cotton of the finest quality is cultivated all along the coast from Acapulco to Guatamala, but two circumstances operate as obstacles to the cultivation: the want of machines, and the high price of carriage. The Eastern coast might supply the commerce of Vera Cruz with an enormous quantity of cotton, were it occupied by a people of energetic and industrious habits. The quantity exported to Europe in 1830, was less than 1,000,000 pounds.

Coffee, Chocolate, &c.

The cultivation of coffee is almost unknown in Mexico, the quantity consumed not exceeding 500 quintals annually. The cultivation of the cocoa-tree

is now much more neglected in Mexico than at the time of its conquest. At that time the Mexicans prepared a beverage called *choclat*, whence the modern term chocolate is derived. All the vanilla used in Europe, comes from Mexico by way of Vera Cruz, and is produced on a surface of a few square leagues of ground in the intendencies of Vera Cruz and Oaxaca; the annual exports amount to about \$40,000. Sarsaparilla is also produced on the same eastern slope where the vanilla is produced. The quantities of red-pepper raised in all parts of the country is almost incredible. The Mexican would rather go without bread, than lack *chili*, as he calls it, with his meat. Both in its green and dried state the amount consumed is incredible. When mashed and mixed with a little water, it is the universal sauce on the tables of the great, while with the poor it forms a component part of their diet. The famous medicinal purgative called *Jalap*, from Xalapa, in the vicinity of which it is cultivated, vegetates at an absolute height of from 4 to 5000 feet on the whole mountainous slope. The whole annual quantity of what is exported from Vera Cruz is about 5000 pounds, or more than one half of what is consumed in Europe.

Tobacco, &c.

Tobacco grows luxuriantly throughout large districts in Mexico, and the quantity consumed there is enormous, although the Indian population make no use whatever of this noxious weed. The cultivation of indigo is much neglected in Mexico, although there are great opportunities for its cultivation.

Animals.

With the exception of the cochineal insect, the most valuable animals known in Mexico have been introduced by Europeans. The Mexicans have not even reduced to a domestic state the two species of wild oxen, which wander in immense herds near the plains of the Rio del Norte; they were unacquainted with the lama of the Cordilleras; and made no use of the wild sheep of California, or of the wild goats of Upper California. Since the conquest, the domestic animals imported from Europe, as oxen, sheep, horses, and hogs, have multiplied amazingly. Immense numbers of horned cattle feed on the ever-verdant pastures of the coast. The natives, like the Chinese, care very little for milk, butter or cheese, but the two latter are in much request among the castes of mixed extraction.

The horses of the northern provinces are as celebrated for their excellent qualities as those of Chili; both said to be of Arabian extraction. Many Mexican families possess from 30,000 to 40,000 head of horses and cattle. The mules would be still more numerous, if so many of them did not perish on the highways from over labour. The commerce of Vera Cruz alone employs 70,000 mules and 5000 are employed in the carriages of the city of Mexico.

The rearing of sheep has been dreadfully neglected in Mexico. None of the merinos have been introduced.

Of wild animals peculiar to Mexico, the gigantic stags of Upper California are the chief. All the forests and plains are filled with droves of this animal, which is justly affirmed by every traveller to be the most beautiful quadruped of America, and is quite different from the elk of the United States. They are of a brown colour, smooth and without spot. Their antlers, of which the branches are not flat, are four and a half feet long; some have been seen whose branches were nine feet long. No horses are capable of outrunning them. The other wild animals are the tapir, which is extremely fierce and voracious, and whose skin will resist a musket-ball; great numbers of monkeys, bears, wolves, foxes, and wild cats; all these, except the tapir, are common to both continents. The

jaguar is met with in the lower part of Mexico. Of the hog, there are only two varieties in Mexico, the one introduced from Europe, and the other from the Phillippine Islands. They have multiplied amazingly on the table lands, and in some parts an extensive commerce is carried on in bacon.

Birds.

The feathered tribes are so numerous, and of such various appearances, that Mexico has been called the country of birds as Africa is of quadrupeds. Ornithologists describe more than 200 species of birds as peculiar to Mexico. Aquatic birds are very numerous, and of great velocity. There are, at least, twenty species of ducks, and vast numbers of geese. Mexico has furnished Europe with the largest of domestic birds, the turkey, which is found wild on the banks of the Cordilleras, from the Isthmus of Panama to Canada.

Insects.

As wax is an object of great importance in a Catholic country, the rearing of bees has been always a principal concern. Bee-hives are extremely productive in the province of Yucatan. The rearing of the cochineal insect is of great antiquity in Mexico, but was formerly more general than now. It seems to thrive only between the tropics, and there at an elevation of 5000 feet above the sea. In the intendency of Oaxaca alone there is annually exported upwards of 100,000 pounds weight. The attending this insect forms the chief occupation of a large part of the Indian population.

Fisheries.

The Mexican fisheries are of no importance. The pearl fisheries of California were much more productive anciently than now; but they have been long since abandoned. The western coasts of Mexico abound with spermaceti whales, but the fishery is almost entirely in the hands of the Americans.

CHAPTER V.

AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.

AGRICULTURE.

OF the agriculture of Mexico, very little can be said. They have cultivated almost every thing, more than their soil, hence they have no system of agriculture. The plough in universal use, is the same that was used two thousand years ago, and is simply a wooden wedge, sometimes without a particle of iron. The hoe is a wooden staff, with an iron spike in the end; the only animal used in ploughing, is the ox, although the planter may have thousands of horses and mules. The grains chiefly cultivated are wheat, barley, and Indian corn. Rye and oats are not cultivated at all, or at least, very little, and many travellers have asserted that they have never seen either in any part of Mexico. Barley is the only grain used as food for horses, and wheat straw is the fodder. Wheat is used for bread by the better classes, whilst Indian meal forms the only bread used by the masses; yet, notwithstanding this, there is not, up to this hour, a corn-mill in all Mexico; but as a substitute, the corn is soaked in water, and is then ground on a smooth stone with a long roller, made also of stone.

MEXICAN PLOUGH.



(a) The handle; (b) the beam to which the oxen are attached; (c) pin by which the beam is attached to the yoke; (d) wedges, &c., by which the beam is elevated or lowered, as occasion requires; (e) the main-piece or sole; (f) the shoe affixed to the main-piece—this is made of iron, and is the only part of the plough composed of that material; (g) section of the sole.

The cultivation of the *maguey alse*, or Argave Americana, is conducted with great profit, and there are, throughout the country, vast plantations of it. This plant is one of the most useful in Mexico. It makes an excellent fence while growing. After it arrives at perfection, which is usually about seven years, *pulque* (a beverage in common use) is extracted from its stalk; the leaves are then either cut up as food for animals, or are manufactured into rope, twine, coarse Indian cloth, or wrapping paper of unequalled toughness.

The importation of raw cotton is positively prohibited; in consequence of which many persons have been induced to commence plantations; but it is doubtful whether the agricultural habits of the people will permit them to flourish.

Hitherto the cotton crop of this republic has not greatly exceeded in value the sum of \$1,750,000. Its value is quite variable. At Tepic, on the west coast, it has been as low as \$15 per quintal; at Vera Cruz, on the east coast, \$22 and \$34; while at Puebla, and in the capital, it has risen to \$40 and even \$48.

The culture of silk is just beginning to attract attention. A company has just been formed for operating upon a large scale, and have sent an agent to France as preliminary to that object. Mexico would be a glorious country for the silk-worm, and the business could not fail to be profitable. The *Morus Multicaulis* would supply food for the worm, at least ten months in the year, so that three or four crops could be raised annually.

MANUFACTURES.

The Government of Mexico has steadily persevered in fostering her domestic manufactures, despite the efforts of foreign capitalists. The administration of Santa Anna was very energetic in protecting the manufacturing interest, both by a high tariff, and by his efforts to suppress the smuggling of English and American fabrics. Such, however, has been the uniform policy of every administration, so that the manufacturers regard their establishments as perfectly safe, and their future success as certain: the manufacturers have already outstripped the production of the cotton planters of Mexico, but notwithstanding this, the importation of the raw material is prohibited. In 1842, some foreign merchants induced the President to consent to the admission, on more favourable terms, of coarse cotton goods; but the united opposition of the manufacturers defeated the arrangement.

Cotton goods which sell in the United States for six cents per yard, are worth thirty cents in Mexico. This results from the high price of the raw material, which sells at from forty to fifty cents per pound, and from the circumstance that all the machinery is imported and transported by land at an enormous cost; and also to the difficulty and delay of repairing it, when it gets out of order. The annexed table, obtained from the most authentic sources, by Mr. MAYER exhibits the number of manufactories, &c., in each Department, in 1843.

STATISTICS OF MEXICAN FACTORIES.

No. of Factories in each department.	Spindles established.	Spindles in orection.	Total.
In Mexico, - 12	30,156	-	30,156
In Puebla, - 21	35,672	12,240	47,912
In Vera Cruz, 7	17,860	5,200	23,060
In Guadalajara, 5	11,312	6,500	17,812
In Queretara, - 2	7,620	-	7,620
In Durango, - 4	2,520	-	2,520
In Guanajuato, 1	1,200	-	1,200
In Sonora, - 1	1,000	-	1,000
53	107,340	23,940	131,280

It must be remarked that there are *three* manufacturing establishments in Durango, the number of spindles in which are included in the above table, because no definite information concerning them had been received. They may, however, be calculated at about 4000, which, added to the 131,280, will give a grand total of at least 135,000. The number of looms also in the republic is not presented, because *data* have been furnished only in relation to those moved by machinery. An immense number of *hand-loom*s are in constant operation throughout the republic.

The value of the Mexican manufacturing establishments may be stated, in round numbers, at \$10,000,000. The number of persons employed in every way in manufactures, cannot be short of 30,000.

There are two paper factories near the capital; one at Puebla, and one in Guadalajara. Their productions are said to be very good, but by no means adequate to the consumption of the country: immense quantities of paper is used in the manufacture of segars.

Glass factories are numerous in Mexico and Puebla, where large quantities of window glass and common tumblers are made. Their produce, however, is not sufficient for the wants of the country.

Woollen blankets, and coarse woollen cloths are also manufactured in Mexico.

There are several manufactories of cotton balls, or thread, in Mexico, but they are not of much importance.

The manufacture of tobacco and gunpowder occupy a considerable number of persons; but the Government has reserved to itself these branches of industry, which it finds an abundant source of revenue.

Soap is very extensively manufactured, and the country possesses great advantage for this business. Tallow is very cheap, owing to the great number of cattle. The carbonate of soda abounds on the table-land of Anahuac, and in the plain of Chihuahua, as well as in many other places. Soap is made not only in the large established manufactories in Mexico, Puebla, and Guadalajara, but also in many other places. Even from the poor and thinly inhabited country of Lower California, soap forms one of the most important articles of export.

The power made use of for the movement of the factories, is water, which is abundant for that purpose all over the country, proceeding from small streams falling from the mountains into the neighbouring plains.

COMMERCE.

A nation engaged in the pursuits of war, whether foreign or domestic, soon loses its relish for the cultivation of the peaceful arts: Agriculture, Manufactures, Commerce, and all other industrial pursuits of the country, which are

essential to its greatness and power, are sacrificed upon the altar of blood. Such is the condition of Mexico; her continual revolutionary disturbances have decreased the wealth of the people—involving them in pecuniary embarrassments—arrested the business pursuits of the enterprising, and turned the public mind into a channel adverse to the occupations of peace: it is not surprising, therefore, that Mexico has but little commerce.

In 1832 and 1833, the Custom House receipts amounted to about twelve millions of dollars per annum. In 1839, on account of the French blockade, they fell to near three millions; in 1840 they rose again to seven millions, and in 1841 they fell to about five, which sum may be divided among the different ports as follows, to wit:—

Vera Cruz	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$3,329,802
Tampico	-	-	-	-	-	-	883,039
Matamoras	-	-	-	-	-	-	312,403
Guyamas	-	-	-	-	-	-	55,814
Monterey	-	-	-	-	-	-	96,853
Acapulco	-	-	-	-	-	-	17,182
San Blas	-	-	-	-	-	-	208,845
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$5,287,097

This corresponds to about twelve millions three hundred thousand dollars of importation annually, divided (according to an estimate) in the following manner:—

From England	-	-	-	-	-	\$4,500,000
“ France	-	-	-	-	-	3,000,000
“ Hamburg	-	-	-	-	-	1,500,000
“ China	-	-	-	-	-	1,000,000
“ United States	-	-	-	-	-	800,000
“ Spain	-	-	-	-	-	500,000
“ Genoa and other ports	-	-	-	-	-	1,000,000
Total	-	-	-	-	-	\$12,300,000

The expense to the government for the collection of this revenue, was \$148,290.

The Exports from the Republic, chiefly its own productions, may be rated at—

Specie, through Vera Cruz	-	-	-	-	\$4,000,000
do do Mazatlan and San Blas	-	-	-	-	3,500,000
Silver and gold through other ports,	-	-	-	-	5,000,000
Silver through Tampico	-	-	-	-	7,000,000
Cochineal, Jalap, Vanilla, Sarsaparilla and Hides	-	-	-	-	1,000,000
Sundries	-	-	-	-	500,000
Total	-	-	-	-	\$20,000,000

From these tables it appears that the whole export from Mexico in 1842 amounted to \$20,000,000, of which the gold and silver amounted to \$18,500,000, which leaves a balance of other products of only \$1,500,000, which is all that can be fairly set down as the result of Mexican industry, the precious metals being produced by foreign enterprise almost entirely.

Commerce of the different Ports.

Vera Cruz.—From the 1st of January to the 1st of July, 1842, there were 102 arrivals at Vera Cruz, and 169 departures, of which 19 were American and 26 English, 20 Mexican and 13 French.

Tampico.—During the year ending 31st December, 1841, there were 91 arrivals and departures at Tampico, of which 19 were British men-of-war and packets, 9 British merchantmen, 24 American, and 18 Mexican.

Matamoras.—In 1841, the whole trade of this port was carried on in vessels from the United States, 32 in number. The exports consisted of:—

Specie	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$352,766
Hides	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	117,334
Wool	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15,943
Horses and Mules	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	800

Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$486,843
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The imports from the United States amounted to \$426,945, and of the following articles:—Silks valued at \$3,380; Woollens, do \$29,194; Cottons, do \$205,451; Linens, do \$71,312; Hardware and Machinery, do \$19,311; Paper, do \$1,680; Jewelry, do \$452; and sundries, amounting in value to \$96,165.

Santa Fé Trade.

The overland trade between the United States and the northern provinces of Mexico, and more especially with Santa Fé, commenced about the year 1804, its origin having been rather the result of accident than of any organized plan. It appears that a man of the name of James Pursley, after wandering over the wild and unexplored regions west of the Mississippi, finally fell in with some Indians on the Platte river, near its source in the Rocky Mountains; from them he obtained information respecting the settlements in New Mexico, and finally set out with a party of these savages for Santa Fé, which he reached in 1805, where he remained until his death. He is supposed to have been the first American that ever crossed the desert plains into the Spanish provinces. It is said, however that a merchant of Kaskaskia, named Morrison, had obtained some information of the trappers, in relation to Santa Fé, and that as early as 1804, he had dispatched a French Creole up the Platte river, with directions to push his way into Santa Fé. He was successful in his enterprise, but he never returned to his employer, or accounted to him for the proceeds of his adventure, but with the capital thus acquired he set up business for himself, raised a large family, and after some twenty years died a very wealthy man.

In 1806, Capt. Pike, who was afterwards promoted to the rank of General, and died in the achievement of the glorious victory at York, Upper Canada, in 1813, was sent, in 1806, on an exploring expedition up the Arkansas. He finally, after much suffering, descended upon the Rio del Norte, with his party, then but fifteen in number; and believing himself within the bounds of the United States, erected a small fortification for his company, until the opening of the spring of 1807 should enable him to continue his way to Natchitoches. As he was in the Mexican settlements, he was discovered, and a force sent to take him to Santa Fé, which was accomplished by treachery. His papers were seized, and he and his party were sent under an escort to the United States.

Upon his return he published a narrative, in which he gave the most glowing descriptions of this new region. His narrative created great excitement in the western country; and in 1812, a regular expedition was fitted out under the auspices of Messrs. McKnight, Beard, Chambers, and others, who, following the

directions of Capt. Pike, finally reached Santa Fé in safety; but they were destined to experience severe disappointments and trials. A revolution had just taken place, and they were seized as spies, their goods confiscated, and themselves thrown into prison, where they remained for nine years, when another revolution placed Iturbide in the ascendant, and they were released.

In 1821, two other expeditions set out, and not only reached Santa Fé, but their homes in safety, after having realized a very handsome profit on their adventure. This stimulated others, and from the year 1822, we may date the virtual commencement of the Santa Fé trade. At the present time, the intercourse is conducted on a systematic plan, a large capital being invested in the trade. As the route leads over a vast desert, where the traveller is exposed to the depredations of roving savages, those engaged in this trade find it necessary to unite their forces, and to travel in large companies, like the caravans of the East, well provided with the means of defence. Their goods are transported in covered waggons drawn by horses, or on the backs of mules, and usually consist of a great variety of merchandize for the supply of the Mexican markets, such as cotton and woollen stuffs, tobacco, spirits, jewelry, &c., for which returns are made in specie and bullion.

The caravans generally take their departure from the town of Independence, on the Missouri river, 379 miles above St. Louis, and on the western borders of the state of Missouri. The length of the route from that place is 877 miles, and the time consumed by the journey is from two to three months.

The Santa Fé trade, though more or less fluctuating from its origin, continued to present an average increase down to 1831. During the same period the price of goods continued to go down in a more rapid ratio. Since 1831, the sales have continued steadily to fall, to the latest period of the trade. Medium calicoes average about 37 1-2 cents, and plain domestic cottons 31 cents per yard. 100 per cent upon United States cost is now considered as yielding excellent profits, which generally leave a net profit of 30 or 40 per cent.

In 1822, the amount of merchandize sent to Santa Fé was estimated at \$15,000, and it gradually increased up to 1843, when it amounted to \$450,000.

The following estimate for the year 1846, was made by Mr. David Waldo, an energetic merchant, who has been for twenty years engaged in the overland trade:—

The trade to Santa Fe, this year, will be 175 large mule waggons, 1,700 mules, 500 men, 200 large ox waggons, 2,000 oxen, 1,000 yokes.

Value of goods (first cost)	- - - - -	\$937,500
Do waggons	- - - - -	75,000
Do 1,750 mules	- - - - -	70,000
Do 1,000 yoke of oxen	- - - - -	35,000
Hire of 500 men for the trip	- - - - -	75,000
Expenses of freight, insurance, &c., to Independence (10 per cent)	- - - - -	93,750
Harness &c., for 2,000 mules and horses	- - - - -	15,000
Provisions—bacon, flour, &c., on the trip out—		
550 men, at \$20 each	- - - - -	11,000
Small outfit	- - - - -	50,000
		<hr/> 1,352,250

The return for this is exclusively bullion.

The net profits will be - - - - - 400,000

Total - - - - - \$1,652,250

The Indian trade, exclusive of the Missouri river, employs about 200 men, at \$200 a year each	\$40,000
Capital invested, - - - - -	300,000
Oxen, mules, waggons, &c. - - - - -	30,000
Total - - - - -	<u>\$390,000</u>

N. B. This does not include the numerous outfits and parties from Arkansas and Texas, nor any of the extensive trade among the civilized and located Indians.

To Oregon, this year, I estimate there will be—

500 waggons, value - - - - -	\$50,000
1,500 yoke of oxen - - - - -	45,000
5,000 loose cattle, at \$5 - - - - -	25,000
Mules and horses - - - - -	10,000
Outfit, provisions, &c. - - - - -	25,000
Total - - - - -	<u>\$155,000</u>

25,000 persons.

To California much the same as to Oregon, but one quarter less—\$116,250
1000 persons.

Grand total of Property.

Mexican trail - - - - -	\$1,752,250
Indian country, - - - - -	390,000
Oregon - - - - -	155,000
California - - - - -	116,700
Total - - - - -	<u>\$2,413,250</u>

In this I make no mention of the arms, equipments, money, and personal effects of the great number of persons, emigrants, travellers, and others passing across the plains. These added to the above, will swell the amount beyond \$3,000,000. The number of persons of all kinds who will pass out through the Indian country will exceed 5,000.

Remember that these statements refer exclusively to the country and trade carried on within it, which is beyond the military establishments of the frontier, and out of the beat of the troops. Self-protection is all that we have to rely upon for the safety of our lives and property.

CHAPTER VI.

MINES AND MINERALS.

The Mineral wealth of Mexico is very great; her mountains contain almost every mineral in use in agriculture, manufacture and the fine arts. But the mines of iron and lead have been almost wholly neglected, while those of silver and gold have been sedulously wrought. Copper is found in considerable quantities, and tin is abundant; extensive iron mines exist in the internal provinces, but coal is very rare. Among the precious stones a few diamonds are found, with amethysts, and turquoises. The mountains produce jasper, marble, alabaster

magnets, steatite, jade quicksilver and talc; but it is the mines of silver and gold which constitute the chief wealth of this country. It is not known at what period the mines of Mexico began to be worked, or were first discovered. It is well known, however, that the natives did not content themselves with those minerals which they found in their native state, on the surface of the earth, and particularly in the beds of rivers and ravines formed by torrents,—but applied themselves to subterranean operations in working veins, cutting galleries, and digging pits, of communication and ventilation, and that they possessed instruments adapted for cutting rocks.

All the Mexican mines are situated between the extreme points of 14 d. and 36 d. N. lat., none having as yet been discovered to the south or north of these latitudes. Within this space are contained about 350 *reals*, or places celebrated for mines in their vicinity; and the number of mines comprehended in these *reals* is nearly *three thousand*. In 1804, about 500 of these mines were worked in different places.

Under the old regime, the mines were divided into 37 districts, over which were placed the same number of councils, called *Diputaciones de Minería*. The following table exhibits a view of the mining districts and *reals* in Mexico, according to Humboldt:—

<i>Intendencias.</i>	<i>Districts.</i>	<i>Reals.</i>
1. Guanajuato	1	19
2. Zacatecas	4	14
3. San Louis Potosi	5	28
4. Mexico	7	60
5. Guadalajara	3	44
6. Durango	5	61
7. Sonora	7	68
8. Valladolid	4	27
9. Oaxaca	1	17
<hr/> 9	<hr/> 37	<hr/> 337

In the *intendencias* of Puebla, Vera Cruz and Old California, there were no *Diputaciones*, as in other *intendencias*; but the number of *reals* amounted to 12, making a grand total of 349.

The mines of Mexico are geologically divided by Humboldt into eight groups, almost all placed either on the ridge, or on the western side of the Cordillera of Anahuac, the whole forming a surface of 12,000 square leagues, or 100,000 British square miles. These groups are not to be considered as forming one connected and continuous surface, but as so many distinct localities, with vast tracts of intervening spaces, almost totally destitute of metalliferous veins. Of these eight groups, that which contains, within a surface of 16,000 square miles, the mines of Guanajuato, Zacatecas, and Catorce, is by far the richest, and when Humboldt wrote, supplied more than one half of the metallic produce of New Spain. The principal rocks which at present furnish almost all the silver of Mexico, are porphyritic, reposing on beds of primitive slate, grey-wacke and Alpine lime-stone. The most celebrated mines are situated at absolute heights of from 5904 to 9842 feet above the sea.

Mines of Guanajuato.

These are the richest mines now known in Mexico. They were discovered in the middle of the sixteenth century, and have alone produced to the amount of about \$300,000,000; and from 1786 to 1803, a period of eighteen years, the annual average was \$4,731,624, which is six and a half times more

than the annual product of all the veins of Hungary and Transylvania put together. The mine of *Valencia*, in Guanaxuato, originally belonged to two individuals, namely, the Count de Valenciana and M. Otero. It was not worked till 1760, and then by a solitary adventurer. In 1776 the works were already 262 feet in depth, and the expenses greatly exceeded the value of its produce. In 1768 it began to pay, in proportion as the pit grew deeper. From 1771 to 1804, this mine never yielded less than \$2,900,000 annually to the two proprietors, and in some years the profits, clear of all expenses, amounted to \$1,200,000. This mine is now wrought to the depth of 1685 feet.

Mines of Zacatecas.

The value of the annual produce of the mines of Zacatecas is about \$3,000,000. The mines of *Sombresete*, in this intendency, are celebrated for the immense riches of their veins, which in the space of a few months left to the family of Fagoago a net profit of *four millions* of dollars.

Mines of Catorce.

These mines, in the state of San Louis Potosi, are at present the richest in Mexico, except those of Guanaxuato. They were discovered in 1778. Several of them were discovered in 1773 by two poor individuals, and begun to be wrought, but the produce was small and variable. In 1778, a Spanish miner named Zepeda, examined for three months this mountainous district, and finally found the surface of the great vein, on which he immediately dug the pit of Guadalupe. He drew from it an immense quantity of muriatic silver and colorados mixed with native gold, and gained, in a short time, more than \$500,000. From that time it was vigorously wrought. The famous mine of *Purissima*, has almost constantly yielded since 1788, a net annual profit of \$200,000, and its produce in 1796 amounted to \$1,200,000, while the expenses of working only amounted to \$80,000. Since 1802 these rich mines have been filled with water.

Mines of Pachuca.

These mines are famed for their antiquity, wealth and proximity to the capital. Terrible fires have occurred in some of them, which caused them to be wholly abandoned.

Biscaina Vein.

This vein, though not so extensive as that of Guanaxuato, is perhaps still richer, and was successfully wrought from the 16th to the beginning of the 18th century. In 1726 and 1727 the two mines of *Biscaina* and *Xacol* still produced together 356,182 lbs. troy of silver,—valued at \$4,672,950. The mining operations, however, were abandoned from the great quantity of water, and the ignorance of the methods of drawing it off; instead of using pumps, they drew up the water in *bags* suspended to ropes.

Mines of Zimapan.

The produce of these mines, and of the others in the intendency of Mexico, is valued at \$1,120,000 annually.

Mines of Durango.

The mineral district of Durango yields annually silver to the amount of \$3,825,000. The groups of *Chihuahua*, and *Oaxaca*, are estimated to produce annually, \$1,115,000. In the vicinity of Chihuahua, according to Pike, are thirteen silver mines, one of gold, and one of copper; and at *Maiepernie*, seven silver mines and one gold mine.

Baron Humboldt gives the gross produce of the mines of Mexico, from 1690 to 1806, both years inclusive, as amounting to \$1,429,361,717, averaging about \$12,216,766 per annum. The highest amount, which was in the year 1796, was \$25,644,566. The produce of the year 1804 he states at \$24,000,000. Mr. Ward estimates the annual produce for a few years prior to 1810, at \$24,000,000. After that period, in consequence of the revolutionary condition of the country, it dwindled to almost nothing—in one year to three and a half millions of dollars.

Hon. Waddy Thompson says, that “the official returns for the year 1842 exhibit an exportation of gold and silver as registered in the Custom Houses, amounting to \$18,500,000. The facilities with which large values of gold may be concealed, and thus clandestinely exported, and the temptation to do so from the high duty of six per cent. on exportation, caused a very large amount to be smuggled. That this was extensively practised was known to every one in Mexico. To form any accurate estimate of the amount of the exports of specie, a very large addition must be made on this account. Three or four millions would scarcely cover it. Add to these the amount retained in the country, and it will be very safe to assume the present produce of the mines at from twenty-two to twenty-four millions of dollars per annum.

“The whole amount coined at the mint in the city of Mexico, since the Conquest, is \$443,000,000; since 1690, \$295,968,750.”

The produce of the mines of Mexico, (says Mr. Thompson) “is quite as large, or larger, now than at any other period, taking an average of ten years, but not so profitable to the proprietors, owing to the immense investments in machinery, and the greater labour of raising the ores now compared with the rude and unexpensive machinery hitherto used, and the comparatively small labour of taking out the ores. The company, which now owns the great mine of Real del Monte, have, in the last few years, expended in machinery and other ways, several millions of dollars. The shaft of that mine is nearly a thousand yards deep.

“Not one fiftieth of the mines are worked, which is attributed, in a great degree, to the high price of quicksilver. This is caused by the monopoly, by the Rothschilds, of the quicksilver mines of Spain, from which the article is chiefly supplied.

The silver extracted in the thirty-seven districts of mines was deposited in the provincial treasuries of the intendencies; and it is from these receipts that we must judge of the quantity of silver furnished by the different mines. From 1785 to 1789, there were received in the deposits of eleven provincial treasuries, the following quantities of silver, valuing the marks at \$ 1-2 dollars :—

	<i>Marks.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Guanaxuato - . .	2,469,000 - -	20,986,500
San Louis Potosi - .	1,515,000 - -	12,877,500
Zacatecas - . .	1,205,000 - -	10,242,500
Mexico - . .	1,055,000 - -	8,967,500
Durango - . .	922,000 - -	7,835,778
Rosario - . .	668,000 - -	5,678,000
Guadalajara - . .	509,000 - -	4,326,500
Pachuca - . .	455,000 - -	3,867,000
Bolanos - . .	364,000 - -	3,094,000
Sombreste - . .	320,000 - -	2,720,000
Zimapan - . .	218,000 - -	2,108,000
Total . . .	9,730,000 . .	82,705,000

Gold Mines.

The Mexican gold is, for the most part, obtained from alluvial grounds, by means of washing. These grounds are common in the State of Sonora. In the plain of Cineguiclla, grains of gold of such a size were found at the depth of nineteen inches from the surface, that some of them weighed nine marks each, equivalent in value to more than \$1000. In several other places large pieces of gold have been found. Gold is also found in the veins which intersect the mountains of primitive rock. These veins have been found a foot and a half thick. This metal is also found either pure or mixed with silver ore, and there is scarcely a silver mine in Mexico which does not contain some gold. The principal vein in the mine of Villalpando, is intersected by a great number of small *rotten* veins of exceeding richness. The argillaceous, or clayey slime, with which these veins are filled, contain so great a quantity of gold, disseminated in impalpable parcels, that the miners are compelled, when they leave the mine nearly naked, to bathe themselves in large vessels to prevent any of the auriferous clay from being carried off by them on their bodies.

Inferior Minerals.

Having given a brief account of the precious metals, we will now notice some of the more common metals. Copper is found in a native state, and in great abundance in the mines of Ingora, and at San Juan Guetamo, in the province of New Mexico. The intendency of Guanaxuato produced in 1802 about 230,000 lbs. of copper, and 10,000 lbs. of tin. Tin is also abundant in the internal provinces, where a number of valuable mines of this mineral are situated, in the vicinity of Durango. The iron mines are very abundant, in Valladolid, Zacatecas and Guanaxuato, but especially in the internal provinces. Lead abounds in the calcareous mountains, especially in the district of Zimapan, and in the province of Santander. Zinc, Antimony, and Arsenic, are also found in abundance. About 100 miles south of Chihuahua, an entire mountain of loadstone, or magnetic iron, has been lately discovered. The strata are as regular as those of limestone.

In 1821 and 1822, the Mexicans determined to restore their mines to their former importance, but to that end, fresh capitalists were necessary, and to secure them, an Act of Congress threw the door open to foreigners, who were allowed to become joint proprietors with natives, on terms highly favourable to the adventurers. This Act, as favourable to foreign speculation, was eagerly taken advantage of by British capitalists, and for a time there was a general *mining* mania in England; a large number of companies were formed, but up to 1827 there were only seven great English companies, besides one German and two American companies employed in working mines in different parts of the country. These companies were as follows:—

The Real del Monte Co.—Capital, \$4,000,000—all invested. Mines located in the states of Mexico, Zimapan and Valladolid. Hon. Waddy Thompson says that this company have within a few years past, expended in machinery and in other ways, several millions of dollars. The shaft of the Real del Monte mine is nearly a thousand yards deep.

Bolanos Company.—Capital, \$200,000. Mines located in Guadalajara and Zacatecas.

Tlalpujahua Company.—Capital, \$2,000,000. Mines located in Mexico and Valladolid.

Anglo-Mexican Company.—Capital, \$5,000,000. Mines located in Guanajuato, Lneretaro, San Louis Potosi, and in two districts in Mexico.

United Mexican Co.—Capital, \$6,000,000. Mines in Guanajuato, Guadalajara, Zacatecas, Chihuahua, Oaxaca, and a large number in Mexico.

Mexican Co.—Capital not known. Mines located, Vera Cruz, Zacatecas and Oaxaca.

Catorce Co.—Capital unknown, some \$300,000 invested. Mines in Mexico, Queretaro, and San Louis Potosi.

German Co. of Eberfeld.—Capital unknown; \$637,760 invested. All their mines are in the State of Mexico.

New York Co.—Capital unknown—investment small. They had a small number of mines in Mexico.

Baltimore Co.—Capital unknown—a few mines in Mexico. Director, Mr. KEATING.

Method of working the Mines.

Mr. Poinsett, who visited the mines of Guanajuato in 1823, gives the following interesting account of their appearance, and the method of working them:

“The excavations extend from south-east to north-west, 1600 yards, and 800 yards in a south-west direction. There are three parallels or plains, worked on ramifications of the principal vein. The *veta madre*, or mother vein, was here found, not more than 22 feet wide, and without any ramification from the surface of the soil, to the depth of 557 feet; at this depth, it divided into three branches, and the entire mass, from 165 to 195 feet thick; of these three branches, not more than one is in general very productive.

“They have all the same angle, (45 d.,) but vary in thickness from nine to forty yards. Four shafts descend to these parallels, the first called San Antonio, of 744 feet perpendicular depth—the cost of this shaft was \$396,000. The square shaft of Santo Christo, 492 feet deep, cost \$95,000. The hexagon shaft of our Lady of Guadeloupe, 1131 feet perpendicular depth, cost \$700,000. San José, an octagon shaft, of more than 1800 perpendicular depth, and 300 feet in the direction of the *veta madre*, which is an angle of 45 d., cost \$1,200,000.

“To understand the necessity of sinking so many shafts of different depths, it may be necessary to explain, that in following the dip of the vein, which is first discovered on the surface, and is almost invariably an angle of 45 d., the work is impeded after a certain depth by water. A shaft is then sunk, so as to intercept the vein at the termination of the gallery, in order to free the mine from water. The work is then continued until it becomes necessary to sink another shaft still deeper, to clear the lower galleries. At the termination of each shaft a great many parallel galleries branch out on ramifications of the mother vein.

“From these parallels a vast number of smaller galleries branch out, worked to a greater or less distance, as the ore proved to be of good or bad quality; and many of them were pierced with a view of discovering other veins. Besides the shafts, there are two descents by steps, winding down to the last parallel. On leaving the house of the administrador, we were conducted to the first flight of steps; and preceded by four men carrying torches, we descended to the first parallel, and stopped where four galleries branch off.

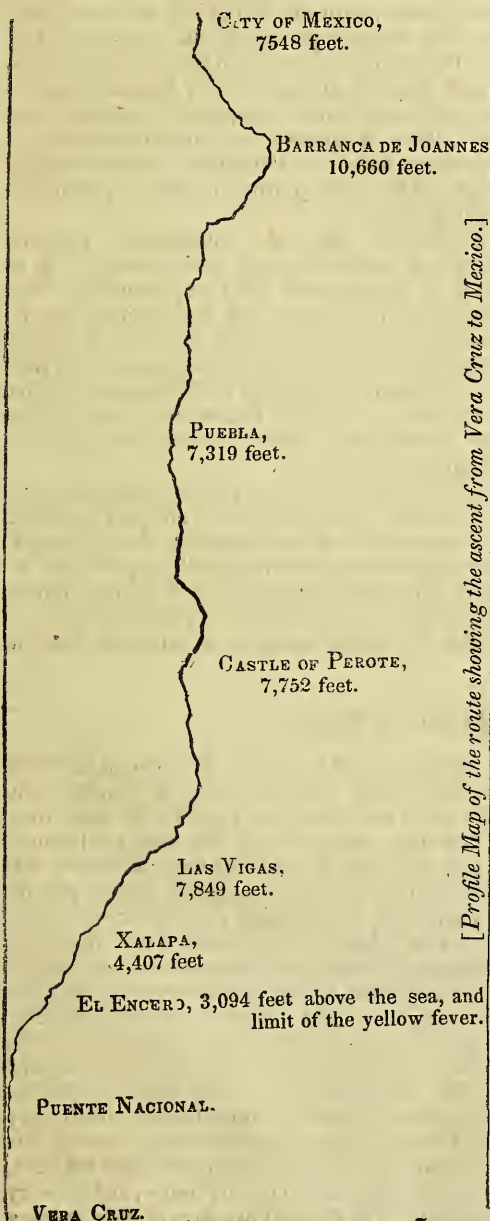
“Our torch-bearers were sent off to the extremity of these galleries, that we might form an idea of their extent in a straight line. They are both extensive and solid; the vaults are of porphyry, and the bottom of gray slate. In some places where the ore proved very rich, it has been taken from the sides and vaults, and the voids filled up with masonry, and beams worked in so as to form a firm support to the sides and roof. These galleries have been blasted out

and must have cost great labour, for the whole mountain is of porphyry to a great depth.

• “The exterior is covered with a crust of brescia, which extends not more than four or five feet from the surface. The ore is for the most part extracted by drilling and blasting; sometimes, but very rarely, the wedge can be used. On our return, we plodded painfully up these stairs, which the *cargadores* (porters) ascend with ease, with a load of ten or fifteen arrobas on their shoulders. They are paid according to the quantity they bring up; and some of these men will ascend, as we were told, from the perpendicular depth of 500 yards, carrying the enormous weight of 24 arrobas (600 pounds). In the court-yard into which we entered from the gallery, and where the workmen are searched, there was a large heap of ore, accumulated by each workman being obliged to bring a stone up in his hand every time he ascends, and throw it on this heap. There are about 1000 workmen at present employed, and in the course of a week a large pile is formed. The product of this belongs to the mine, and forms a fund for contingent expenses. The matrices of these ores, which we had here a good opportunity of examining, are principally quartz, amethyst, and rock crystal, horn stone, calcareous spar of a dark brown, and of pearl colour. The metals are pyrites of iron, arsenic, yellow copper, galena, gray and yellow blend, virgin gold and silver, sulphate of silver, both brittle and ductile, and rosicler, a rich silver ore of a bright rosy colour, which we did not see. This ore is so rare, that I could not meet with a specimen during my residence in Mexico. There are likewise veins with copper, lead, tin, cinnabar, antimony, and manganese; and the crystals of the carbonate of lime, that are found in this mine, are very large and perfect. We next visited the principal shaft, San José, an octagon, the diameter 11 yards, and the perpendicular depth 600. This great work, which cost upwards of a million of dollars, is in some places blasted through solid rock, and in others, walled up with hewn stone: the masonry is admirably well executed. The workmen threw bundles of lighted hay down the shaft, which blazed as they descended, and which we saw fall into the water, now not more than 250 yards from the summit, and rising every day. After failing in his attack on the city of Guanaxuato, Mina caused the machinery of the mine of Valenciana to be burnt, and the owners have not funds to renew it. From these mines we went to a shaft called Guadeloupe, where we found two malacates in operation. These machines are used to free mines from water, and to draw up the ore. A malacate is a drum of about ten feet in diameter, attached to a vertical spindle, a shaft of 15 feet long, which is shod with steel, and turns in steel sockets. Poles project at right angles from the shaft, to which the horses are harnessed. Two ropes are passed round the drum, and over pullies supported by poles twelve feet high, and about 10 feet apart, and leading to the well. As the drum turns, one rope descends, and the other is wound up, and raises a large skin full of ore, or buckets of water, by what the French call a *chapelet*. At the principal or octagonal shaft, eight malacates were kept constantly at work, night and day. Each malacate was moved by 12 horses, and drew up, by a succession of buckets, 78 arrobas (975 quarts) every nine or ten minutes. 95,000 arrobas, or 31,800 cubic feet of water, might be raised by this means every 24 hours. It happened to be a sale day, (Wednesday,) and in the same court where the malacates were at work, we saw three or four hundred people collected; some exposing the ore to the best advantage, and others examining its quality. This mine is now worked by halves—the workmen receiving one half of the profits, and the owners of the mine the other. The workmen were busily employed in arranging the pieces of ore in parallelograms, composed of small circular heaps of ore. They were very careful to place the richest pieces at top, and the fairest side in sight.

CHAPTER VII.

ROADS—TRAVELLED ROUTES—MODES OF TRAVELLING

(1.) *Vera Cruz to Mexico.*

[Profile Map of the route showing the ascent from Vera Cruz to Mexico.]

FROM Vera Cruz to Mexico is a distance of 290 miles. The route over which the road now passes is the same through which Cortes passed on his ever-memorable expedition. The road is broad and paved with round stones precisely as the principal streets are in our American cities. It was built in the year 1804. Humboldt, who was in Mexico at the time, compared it to the roads over the Simplon and Mount Cevals. The numerous bridges spanning ravines and water-courses are all of arched masonry, and of the most substantial workmanship. The road has for its protection against the invasion of foreign foes, castles erected on the most commanding eminences and passes.

There is a very good line of stages, making three trips every week, between Vera Cruz and Mexico. The fare is enormously high—\$50 for a single seat, and to ensure the safety of baggage, it is usual to forward it by a separate conveyance, the cost of which is \$10 per trunk. The line of stages was established by an American some years ago, but is now owned by a rich Mexican. The stages are built at Troy, N. Y., and the drivers are all Americans. Seven horses are usually driven; two at the wheels, three abreast, and two more in the lead.

The stage leaves Vera Cruz at eleven o'clock at night, and arrives the next evening about three o'clock, at Jalapa, a distance of ninety miles. For the first few miles the road passes along the sandy beach; it then

begins to ascend by a gradually inclined plane. It soon enters the mountain gorges by a deep dell of lofty and perpendicular rocks, all of which it may be observed command the pass and make it easily tenable by a small body of troops against a vastly larger force. The defenders might be scattered over a variety of points, where they would remain entirely secure from the assaults of an invading army. For about one hundred miles, until you reach Las Vigas, there is one continual ascent, among defiles, until the height of 7,849 is reached above the level of the sea. Here the steepest portion of the road ends; but thence to Perote, and so onward to Puebla, it passes over an uninterrupted series of abrupt descents and ascents, and through an exceedingly broken country. At Perote there is a strong fortress or castle, which completely commands the pass. Between Puebla and Mexico, there is another steep mountain, (see engraving) and the traveller must reach the height of 10,660 feet before he begins to descend into the valley of Mexico. The entire journey is usually performed in about sixty-three hours of travelling time.

"Travelling from Vera Cruz to Mexico," says Mr. Thompson, "you are scarcely ever out of sight of caravans of muleteers going and returning. It is the mode of transportation universal in this country. A Frenchman some few years since established a line of waggons on the route, and died whilst I was in Mexico, leaving a fortune of some four hundred thousand dollars—all of which he had made from a very small beginning. Yet after his death no one was disposed to continue the business. The load of each mule is 400 pounds, for the freight of which, from Vera Cruz to Mexico, is \$20. The mules subsist on the coarsest and scantiest food. The drivers are a class of hardy men, who are never robbed, and are always faithful and honest.

"Although the whole road, from Vera Cruz to Mexico, passes through a country inexpressibly picturesque and beautiful, yet the ignorant, idle and degraded population, the total absence of cultivation and improvement, and a general appearance of wildness and desolation, produced within me feelings partaking of gloom and melancholy. Neither in going nor returning did I see one human being, man, woman or child, engaged at work of any sort. The great mass of population doze out their lives with no higher thoughts or purposes than the beasts that perish."

(2.) *Tampico to Mexico.*

The distance from Tampico to Mexico is 312 miles. The road leads over precipitous mountains, and is altogether unfit for carriages. A traveller who passed over this route in 1822, describes the country as level for 48 miles from Tampico, with a rich black soil, few trees except palms, and thinly inhabited. This was followed by a broken and hilly region for a distance of nearly 100 miles, possessing a deep soil, but destitute of water during the greater part of the year. The traveller now encountered a steep and rugged mountain, belonging to the great chain of *Sierra de Madre*. The ascent was difficult and fatiguing, and occasionally frightful precipices showed themselves at the feet of his mules. After a long ride up the mountain, he began to descend on the other side, which was so steep that his party conceived it safer to take to their feet.

fastening the bridles to the mules' heads, they sent the beasts in advance, followed with great difficulty for three quarters of an hour, until they reached the Indian village of Clacalula. The succeeding nine miles were travelled in the bed of the river Cañada, (it being the dry season;) upon leaving which, they commenced the ascent of Mount Penulco, which consumed two hours; this mountain exceeded in height any eminence they had yet passed, and the road, though wide and free from impediments, was winding in its course, and at every turn approached the edge of a precipice. For the next two days of their journey

they continued to ascend on a good road, and passing over several hills, at last began to descend to the rich and fertile valley of the Santiago, or the Rio Grande of the west. Here they found in plenty, bananas, oranges, and the avocate or alligator pear. But a formidable mountain height still rose before them; this was the mountain of San Ammonica, the dread of muleteers. Near the summit there is a pass of a peculiar character; as it is approached, a perpendicular precipice of about 150 feet presents itself, at the foot of which a narrow road is finally perceived, which in eight short, steep and desperate turns, conducts the traveller to the top, shuddering at every turn as he looks down and beholds the vast abyss below. A plain 22 miles in extent succeeds, which is crossed by good roads leading to the celebrated mining district and town of Real del Monte. In one hour after leaving this place, the road descends into the table-land of Mexico, and continues its course over a level plain for sixty miles to the capital. This journey occupied twelve days, or eighty-six hours actually on the road.

It is a remarkable fact that the only route through which a carriage can pass from the low-lands of the coast to the upper country, with the single exception of the road from Vera Cruz to Mexico, is through a pass leading from Monterey (288 miles west of Matamoras) to Saltillo.* These, then, are the only two routes by which an invading army can reach Mexico. A Mr. Phillips, who was sent out from England, in 1822, with some machinery for the mines of Catorce, (lat. 23 d.) gives an account of the method he was compelled to adopt to get it to its place of destination, which we transcribe. His machinery was loaded at Tampico, as being the nearest port to the mines of Catorce, and he left Altamira (a few miles from Tampico) on the 16th of May, with fourteen four-wheeled carriages or waggons, well loaded, drawn by oxen. In order to reach Catorce, which is situated on the table-lands, it was necessary to take a circuitous route, leading first in a northerly direction from Altamira to Monterey, thence west to Saltillo, over the carriage-road to the table-land, and thence southerly to the mines. The journey consumed several months, being protracted by various mischances and the bad state of the roads and bridges. "On the 15th of October," says Mr. Phillips, "we entered the city of Monterey, situated in a large bahia, or plain, surrounded by mountains, (part of the Sierra Madre; it lies in about 26 d. N. lat. The climate is most delightful; fruit abounds all the year round, and provisions of all kinds are cheap and plentiful. It contains 15,000 inhabitants, among whom are a great many old Spaniards, extremely wealthy. We stopped there a day or two to load four carts with four tons of castings for Saltillo, and left on the 17th, proceeding for three leagues over a most excellent road. Our route from Altamira to Monterey ran north by west-half-north, or nearly so, with trifling variations; on leaving Monterey, we proceeded due west. We started early on the 18th, and although our road was a continual ascent, we performed three leagues. On the 19th we descended over a rough broken road about three leagues; and on the 20th, yoked our cattle early in the morning and drove to Rinconada. Our road in the morning lay through a barrenca [ravine], which conducted us to a hill; the road is good, but the steepest, I believe, in the world for a carriage. We soon reached, however, El Puerto de los Muertos, [the gate of the dead,] the summit of the mountain, which derives its name, the Indians say, from a bloody battle fought there by the first conquerors and the natives. We stopped a little on the top of the hill to rest the bullocks, and in the evening yoked them again, and reached a rancho [village] about a league and a half distant from El Puerto.

"The next day we drove on smartly, and by twelve o'clock were three leagues on the road, when we halted opposite a large farm-house, the people of which were astonished at the sight of the boilers, and came running to know the use of

* Mexico in 1842, by Hon. George Folsom.

such tremendous things. The proprietor of the hacienda [farm-house] also came out to us, to whom Col. Martinez thought proper to mention our distressed situation, which he was no sooner acquainted with than he rode off to his house and in about an hour afterwards we received a sufficient quantity of provisions for two days, consisting of beef and mutton, (boiled and roasted,) vegetables, bread, &c. &c. At four o'clock we left this abode of hospitality, and drove two leagues farther, and during the night felt the cold more sensibly than we had hitherto done since leaving the coast. On the 23d we arrived at Saltillo, twenty-five leagues from Monterey. Saltillo is situated on the side of a hill; the country around presents very different features from those of the *tierra caliente*, where the land is so fertile, and the herbage so luxuriant. On this side of the Sierra Madre there is nothing but barren mountains and plains destitute of vegetation. Saltillo contains about 12,000 inhabitants, and has several good streets, communicating at right angles with the Plaza [public square,] in the centre of which is a large reservoir, which supplies the town with water. We had generally from the coast to this place met with great civility and attention, but the inhabitants here showed us every possible mark of kindness and politeness. On the second day after we arrived, we dined, by invitation, with a cousin of Iturbide's, and met all the principal people and authorities of the town; the dinner was most splendidly served up in the Spanish style, and to us who had fared badly during five months before, was no ordinary sort of treat. We contracted for several carts to take all our castings, except the cylinder, to Catorce, which latter, together with the boilers, were all that remained for our own carriages. We left Saltillo on the 26th of October, and proceeded four leagues over an excellent road, then stopped for the night at a small rancho. Our bullocks by this time began to fail us; we consequently here contracted with a man to drive us to Catorce with his own cattle, which we reached without much difficulty in about ten days.

(3.) *Texas to Mexico.*

In former times it was not unusual to travel by land from New Orleans to the city of Mexico. The road led from Natchitoches, on the Red River, through the province of Texas by Nacogdoches, San Antonio de Bexar, and Presidio de Rio Grande, where it crossed that river about 500 miles from its mouth, to Monclova, Saltillo, or Monterey; thence through the interior of the country to the capital. The length of the whole route is stated by Humboldt to be 540 leagues, or 1620 miles; he adds that "it presents very few obstacles until it reaches the Rio Grande, and the ascent to the table-lands begins only from Monterey, where the declivity is by no means rapid.

Captain Pagés, of the French navy, travelled over this route to Mexico, and thence to Acapulco, in 1767; and the late General Pike, of the United States army, marched with a small party along a portion of it in 1807. The French traveller, having arrived at San Antonio de Bexar, pursued a direct course to Saltillo, crossing the Rio Grande at Laredo; and thence continued his route to the city of Mexico. He reckons the distance from San Antonio to Saltillo 160 leagues, and from Saltillo to Mexico 220 leagues, in all 380 leagues, or 1,050 miles. Pike, who had been surprised by a Spanish force while exploring the head-waters of the Arkansas, and taken to Santa Fe, returned to the United States by the way of Chihuahua and Monclova, and thence through the province of Texas to Natchitoches, crossing the Rio Grande, (above Laredo) and passing through San Antonio de Bexar, then the capital of the province.

According to the journal of this officer, he consumed five days in the march from Monclova to Presidio Rio Grande, averaging 20 miles per day, and about the same length of time in going from Presidio Rio Grande to San Antonio de

Bexar, averaging 30 miles per day. The road from San Antonio to Saltillo, crossing the Rio Grande at Laredo, is shorter and more direct than the upper route by the Presidio.

For information respecting the portion of the route, from Saltillo to the mines of Catorce, see the account of Mr. Phillips' journey on a preceding page.

From Saltillo to Catorce is 164 miles. After leaving Catorce, the travelled route passes along a good carriage-road along the base of a mountainous range. For a long distance of country after leaving this place, water is obtained with so much difficulty at certain seasons of the year, that travellers are obliged to pay for it. It is supplied from wells of great depth, which are brackish and unpleasant; and even then is only to be obtained for money, at intervals of twenty miles distance, the keepers of the wells living hard by in miserable huts. Mr. Ward, (the British envoy,) who visited the Catorce mines in November, 1826, describes the country on this part of his route as dreary and deserted, without water or cultivation; and adds, that at Guadalupe his party paid two dollars for permission to water their animals at the *tanque* belonging to the estate.

From Catorce to San Luis Potosi is 156 miles. San Luis, including the *barrios* or suburbs, is stated by Mr. Ward to contain between fifty and sixty thousand inhabitants, and it is supposed that as many more are concentrated within a circle of six leagues in its immediate vicinity. The town is well built, the streets intersecting each other at right angles. The houses in the Plaza, or public square, and on the principal avenues leading to it, are of stone. This city is the centre of one of the richest mining districts in Mexico. It also derives great advantages from its situation as the natural depôt for the trade of Tampico with the northern and western states of the republic, which receive through this channel a large proportion of their foreign imports. The distance from San Luis to Tampico is about 200 miles, in a direct line to the coast. Mr. Poinsett passed over the route in thirteen days, in the autumn of 1822, and Capt. Lyon in about the same length of time, in the spring of 1827. Both travellers describe the intermediate country as interesting and agreeable for the most part, although destitute of good roads suitable for carriages.

Leaving San Luis Potosi for the capital, the first stage is 16 leagues to the hacienda and village of Jaral; thence to the town of San Felipe 10 leagues crossing a branch of the Sierra Madre by a long and difficult ascent and descent very inconvenient, says Mr. Ward, but not absolutely dangerous for carriages. From San Felipe the road leads over an elevated plain for six or seven leagues; it then becomes steep and mountainous for four leagues to the hacienda of La Tlachiquera, situated in the centre of a ridge of mountains, and about midway between San Felipe and the city of Guanajuato. These mountains may be avoided by a circuitous route after leaving San Luis, passing to the west through the town of Leon. Guanajuato is situated in the midst of a rich mining and agricultural district. The mine of Valenciana alone, between the years 1766 and 1803, yielded silver to the amount of 165,000,000 dollars. The adjacent country, comprehending an extensive territory under the name of the Baxio, forms an immense plain, highly cultivated, and producing in great perfection all the fruits of Europe, and many of those indigenous to the tropics. Thus situated, Guanajuato has long been considered one of the most opulent and flourishing cities in Mexico. It is 220 miles from the capital. The next places on the route are Irapuato, 11 leagues; Salamanca, five leagues; Zelaya, nine leagues; Querétaro, 10 leagues; all of which are populous towns, situated on the fertile plains of the Baxio. The aqueduct by which the town of Querétaro is supplied with water from a spring in the mountains, at a distance of nearly nine miles, is very picturesque. Its arches are lofty, light and bold, and its extent gives it an air of great magnificence as it stretches across the plain. It contains 40,000 inhabitants, and is distant 120 miles from the capital. The next town is San Juan

del Rio, which stands in a rich and highly cultivated valley, eight or ten leagues from Querétaro. Arroyo Sarco is the name of a large hacienda 12 leagues from San Juan. The river lower down takes the name of Moctezuma, and afterwards unites with the Panuco, having Tampico at its mouth. From Tula to Huehuetoca, the distance is ten leagues, through a desert and barren country. At this place terminates the celebrated *deságué* or drain, constructed for the purpose of carrying off the waters of the lakes in the valley of Mexico, to prevent an inundation of the capital. It is a vast canal, cut through a hill, from 100 to 130 feet deep, and at the summit between 200 and 300 feet wide; its length is about 14 miles. Huehuetoca is the last stage before arriving at the capital, from which it is distant eleven leagues. Such is the route from the banks of the Rio Grande to the city of Mexico.

[4.] *From Independence, Missouri, to Santa Fé.*

For the last twenty years trading companies have carried on a lucrative and constantly increasing traffic with New Mexico, by way of Independence, the western frontier town of Missouri and the general *point d'appui* for all the expeditions to the remote west. It has grown, mainly under the influence of this traffic, to be a large and flourishing town, and furnishes the supplies of all kinds required for the journey over the great prairies which stretch from this point to the Rocky Mountains. It stands within two or three miles of the Missouri river, and is but twelve from the Indian border.

The route is perfectly accessible and not especially dangerous. Trading companies of from one to two hundred persons, and very often of less, frequently escort trains of merchandize, with large quantities of gold and silver, to the amount of several hundred thousand dollars, in safety across the prairies, and but little danger is apprehended from the predatory attacks of the various tribes of Indians which dwell upon the route. Occasionally some daring assault from them has led to sending an escort of U. S. troops, but generally the trading caravans provide sufficiently for their own defence.

From St. Louis to Independence the distance is about 250 miles, directly across the State of Missouri, and the river is navigable for nearly the whole distance. From Independence to Santa Fé, the distance is set down by Mr. Gregg, in his valuable work upon the Commerce of the Prairies, at 775 miles, and the trip across is performed, under favourable circumstances, in about sixty days. There is nothing like a human habitation to be met throughout the route, until the settlements of New Mexico are reached. For nearly 500 miles the route lies through an uninterrupted prairie, except the narrow fringes of timber which border the streams. At the distance of 200 miles from Independence, buffaloes begin to be found, and hunting affords at once excitement and food for the expedition. Quagmires are frequently encountered, over which paths are readily made by crossing them with brush and throwing earth upon it. At the distance of 270 miles, the Arkansas is crossed; and at this point the prairie soil, which before has been rich, fertile, and covered with the most beautiful vegetation, becomes more barren, and presents thenceforward a far more cheerless and dreary appearance. Between the Arkansas and the Cimarron rivers, a distance of fifty-eight miles, intervenes a sandy desert, formerly difficult of passage and destitute of water, and the route for some distance farther, continues to become one of considerable labour. After crossing the river, dense thickets are encountered, and the face of the country assumes the character of a mountainous region, being broken into tall cliffs, deep gorges, and a generally rough and hard surface. After passing the Upper and Cold Springs, which are 330 miles from Independence, the track becomes perfectly plain and easy, and from the top of Round Mountain, 50 miles farther ahead, a magnifi-

cent view is obtained of the immense plains which lie adjacent, destitute of timber, except around the bluffs of ravines, and only occasionally covered with herds of countless buffalo.

A traveller who lately passed over this route gives the following description of his journey :—

“The Indian country as far as Council Grove, 200 miles from the line, is perhaps as fine a tract of country as can be found in the world ; there is rather a scarcity of timber, but in soil and water none can be superior. The Council Grove, as it is called, is the ancient site of a once proud and mighty city. It is situated on the main White river, which here forms a crescent or curve of about nine miles in circumference, and contains more than a hundred mounds, half of which are more than ten times as large as those near Vincennes ; those in the centre are in the form of a square, many containing a surface of more than two acres, some in the form of a triangle, and others perfectly round. Here the Pawnee, Arapahoe, Comanche, Loups, and Eutaw Indians, all of whom are at war with each other, meet and smoke the pipe once a year in peace. Every person and every thing are held sacred for many miles around this peaceful grove. This custom has been handed down for many centuries among the red men, and here their chiefs and great men are brought from hundreds of miles around to be interred. The numerous camps everywhere to be seen around here, at once convince the traveller that this is the great rendezvous of thousands annually. From hence onward for 500 miles, there is nothing to be seen but one eternal desert, without a solitary stick of timber to cheer the eye. Nothing here is to be had but buffalo dung to cook the food that is used, but with this the whole prairies are covered, and it is an excellent substitute.

“We overtook the caravan in sight of the Arkansas, about 400 miles from the line of the United States, and 800 from St. Louis, without being troubled by the Indians, and attached ourselves thereto for duty in crossing the river, which is much larger than at the mouth, and always muddy, and rolling her quicksands into bars almost every hour, so that fords and crossings are dangerous and uncertain. From the Arkansas river, the scarcity of water commences, and even the little to be had is so deeply impregnated with salt, sulphur, &c., that stern necessity alone brings the traveller to the use of it. On the Simerone river there are one or two good springs, at one of which we met 500 warriors of the Arapahoe Indians, who treated us with a proper friendship, being elated with their success ten days before, when in battle they killed seventy-six Pawnees. We gratified them by encamping on the battle-ground, where the unburied bodies were yet almost unbroken. The next day we visited their lodge, six miles from the battle-ground, where we had a full view of savage life in a perfect state of nature ; amongst 500 women and children, there were but few who had ever before seen the dress and equipage of the white man.

“After leaving these friendly Indians, we were cheered in eight or ten days with the far distant appearance of the Rocky Mountains. From day to day, as we approached them, the beauty of the scenery increased, and when within twenty miles, the reflection of the sun through the snow that eternally crowns their highest peaks, is splendid beyond description. Here the traveller beholds a chain of many hundred, nay, thousands of miles, varied with nothing but the white caps of snow and rough and terrific precipices, until you reach the crossings of Canadian river, at the foot of the mountains ; and here the pine and cedar tree on the mountain side and in the valley again greet the eye. On this plain we encountered about 300 Eutaw warriors ; but after repeated skirmishing, they were fain to retreat without effecting any damage of consequence. From here to the good town of Bogas, we found water, wood, and good cheer. We arrived in this city on the 2d July, all in good health, in less than two months, the quickest trip ever made over the desert.

“ Santa Fé is situated in a valley ten miles long, and from two to five wide, surrounded by immense mountains covered with pine and cedar trees, and affords the most beautiful scene the eye can conceive, or the mind imagine. It is the seat of government of New Mexico, and is commanded by a governor-general. It is also a military post, port of entry, and depository of all the ancient archives of the neighbouring states. The houses are built of unburnt bricks, two feet long, six inches deep, and one foot wide, made with straw and mud, and dried in the sun; and such is their durability, that many houses are standing more than 200 years old, and look well; they are only one story high, handsomely whitewashed inside, with dirt floors. Even the palace in which his excellency resides, has no other than a dirt floor, but they are generally covered with carpets; the houses are covered with stones and dirt, and are flat-roofed, perfectly weather-proof. The town contains six churches, generally richly fitted out. The population is about 3600, all rigid Roman Catholics. It is situated on a small branch of the Rio Grande del Norte, about 14 miles from the main river, which is here near the size of the Wabash, at Vincennes.

“ The inhabitants are honest—perhaps more so than those of the same class in the United States; and proud and vain of their blood, both the descendants of the ancient Spaniards of unmixed descent, and those of the Spaniards and Indians. The pure blood cannot hold office here; the present governor-general and all the officers of state, are of the mixed blood of Montezuma. In this place there is but one officer of justice, the *alcalde*, and he has nothing to do.

“ The commerce of Santa Fé is certainly very considerable; and although there is but one gold mine worked here now, and one copper mine, yet the daily receipts afford about 600 or 700 dollars net. The number of hands employed at work is from 100 to 220. The revolution has set every thing back here in the mining departments, as they were generally held by natives of old Spain, and accounted forfeits to the general government after the revolution.

The distance from Santa Fé to Mexico may be computed as follows: To Paso del Norte, 210 miles; to Chihuahua, 180 miles; to Jose del Parral, 140 miles; to Durango, 240 miles; to Somnete, 90 miles; to Zacatecas, 85 miles; to Aguascalientes, 80 miles; to Guanaxuato, 100 miles; to Mexico, 210 miles; in all, 1335 miles.

[5.] *Acapulco to Mexico.*

In former times Acapulco derived great importance from its enjoying a monopoly of the trade between Manilla, in the Philippine Islands, (belonging to the crown of Spain,) and Mexico. The richly-freighted Spanish galleons made its noble harbour their only place of resort on the western coast, and extensive fairs for the sale of every description of goods suitable for the markets of the Indian ocean, were held in the town. M. Pagés, the French traveller, embarked here in one of those ships, on his arrival from New Orleans *viâ* the city of Mexico, the 2d of April, 1768. The cargo, among other things, comprised three millions of piastres in specie, destined in part to defray the expenses of government in the Philippine islands; and of the hundred passengers on board, at least forty, says Pagés, were monks. The harbour of Acapulco is one of the finest in the world. Capt. Basil Hall, who visited it in 1822, expresses the highest professional admiration of this celebrated port. He says, “ it is easy of access; very capacious; the water not too deep; the holding ground good; quite free from hidden dangers; and as secure as the basin at Portsmouth dock-yard. From the interior of the harbour the sea cannot be discovered; and a stranger coming to the spot by land, would imagine he was looking over a sequestered lake.”

The Mexican muleteers reckon the distance from Acapulco to Mexico at 110 leagues; other itineraries make it five or six leagues less.

(6.) *Mazatlan to Mexico.*

The route from Mazatlan, on the Pacific coast, to the city of Mexico, passes through some of the chief provinces and cities of the republic, and is thus very graphically described by Dr. WM. MAXWELL WOOD, who performed the journey in company with our Consuls, Messrs. Dimond and Parrot, since the commencement of the present hostilities between the United States and Mexico.

The most convenient point of departure is at the town of San Blas, a little south of the mouth of the Gulf of California, and one day's ordinary sail from Mazatlan. Starting from San Blas instead of Mazatlan saves five days' laborious land-travel. The village on the beach consists of a collection of thatched huts, inhabited by a sallow, unhealthy looking population, and particularly rich in mosquitoes and sand-flies. About a mile back of the beach stands the old town of San Blas, on a rocky eminence, rising like a castle from the swampy verdant plain surrounding it; it is now but the mouldering gravestone of past prosperity. Both San Blas and Tepic, the city of which it is the port, are losing themselves in the flourishing town of Mazatlan, which has risen rapidly out of that smuggling commerce which the benighted policy of Mexico has rendered the systematic, if not the legitimate, commerce of the country. With the Spanish style of architecture, Mazatlan has the freshness, newness, and, disdaining the limitation of walls, the independent, straggling character of a new town in the United States.

At San Blas an arrangement had been made with an arriero, or muleteer, to convey us to the city of Tepic; and accordingly on the morning of May 4th, we found the requisite quantity of beasts on the beach, all caparisoned for the journey. It is necessary that each traveller on this journey should have at least one baggage mule; for, besides his ordinary luggage, he must carry all his bedding, and, with a just discretion, a good store of provisions. Upon this occasion we had handsome and convenient brass bedsteads, stowed compactly in trunks and boxes, and at night, when they were put up, their glittering posts and canopy frames formed a strong contrast with the rude unfurnished rooms in which we lodged.

Our party consisted, including the muleteers, of seven persons, and ten horses and mules; each of us equipped with a formidable battery of carbines at the saddle-bow, pistols around the waist, and the Mexicans wearing long rusty swords which had lost their scabbards. All this war-like equipment was, I presume, upon the principle of scarecrows in a cornfield, more than with any design of bloody conflict. All preparations being completed, at seven o'clock we took our departure from the shore of the Pacific ocean, and passed into a dense, luxuriant, bottom-land thicket or jungle. This bottom is only passable in the dry season, and we noticed the elevation of the water during the wet season marked six feet high on the trees. From this bottom we ascended by a gentle rise to some good cultivable land, upon which was here and there a Mexican farm or rancho, and occasionally a new clearing, such as are seen in our west. At twelve we reached the half-way house, a plain farm-house, where we found clean and comfortable provision. Resting until half past three, we again got under way, and now commenced the ascent of the mountains. Our way lay through a dark forest of gigantic trees, up and down precipitous declivities, until about sun down, we emerged upon a naked and desolate mountain summit, from which, looking back over a vast region of country below us, we had our parting view of the Pacific losing itself in the distant horizon. The road now passed over hills of white and red clay, a sterile and lonely country; the moon rose upon us long before our day's journey came to its close in the city of Tepic, just as the serenos, or watchmen, were whistling on their sharp calls the hour of ten.

and giving forth their devotional cry of "Ave Maria purissima." We were received in the elegant mansion of Mr. Forbes, a Scotch gentleman, whose warm hospitality allows no stranger to pass Tepic without a home, which was particularly agreeable after an unaccustomed ride of fifty-five miles.

Tepic is a handsome and well-built city, of about eight thousand inhabitants but in a state of decay—its population having fallen off in a few years four thousand. The only thing refreshing, prosperous, and un-Mexican about it, is the cotton factory of the Messrs. Forbes. The situation is pretty and picturesque, where they have the water-power of a mountain-stream, and the buildings, both of the factory and residences of the persons connected with it, are in a showy and appropriate architectural taste. The factory makes eighty pieces a day, and it sells for twenty-five cents the *yard*—something less than a yard. Most of the raw material is brought from New Orleans, although a little is grown in the country. In the neighbourhood of Tepic are some fine sugar estates, where refined sugar is made at a cost of three or four cents, and sells at ten cents a pound.

At Tepic we made a new contract with an *arriero*, for himself, his *mozos*, or boys, horses, mules, carbines and swords, to carry us to Guadalajara, a five-day journey.

The necessary arrangements being completed, on the afternoon of May 6th our cavalcade was on its way to Guadalajara, reaching that night the village of San Leonel. Don Ramon, our chief *arriero*, instead of taking us to the *fonda*, lodged us in the farm-house of a friend of his. The lady of the establishment was particularly cautious in locking the doors and securing the windows before retiring; and, as a reason of her care, she showed an enormous scar extending the whole length of her arm, which had been inflicted by the knife of a robber, some years before, who, at the same time, laid two others of her household wounded on the floor.

The usual mode of travelling is to start at three or four o'clock in the morning having first taken the *desayuno*, a cup of tea, coffee, or chocolate, with a small cake or rusk; then travelling until eleven or twelve o'clock, when breakfast, in our sense of the word, is taken, and a rest of three or four hours enjoyed, the day's journey being completed in the cool of the evening, at which time the traveller dines. This order and period of meals is that common to all Mexico.

The first part of our journey from Tepic was among a succession of smooth, rounded hills, rising from the surrounding dry, barren plains, like Indian mounds, the plains themselves intersected by long stone fences, but entirely destitute of cultivation. Soon after leaving San Leonel on the morning of the 7th, the country assumed a rather more cheering appearance. A few thinly-scattered pine trees covered the hills, and an occasional small stream of water ran at their base. In the valleys were fields of barley; here and there we passed an Indian village of thatched huts, and mules treading out barley on a ground threshing-floor. Our halt for the day was at the village of Santa Isabel. Leaving this place, our road conducted us, during the afternoon, over a singular volcanic formation. As we approached this region, there appeared to be a lofty dark wall extending across the country from the base of a mountain on the left. This wall formed the boundary, or outer edge of a widely-extended mass of craggy rocks rising some twenty feet above the country over which they were spread. They lay, far as the eye could see, tossed in all manner of confused shapes, like rocky waves with ragged summits, grown black with age, and had the appearance of a tempest-tost sea of molten iron, suddenly congealed in all its wild confusion. In contemplating the probable force producing the phenomenon, it presents the idea of the explosion of a mountain and the masses tumbling into their disorder. By night we arrived at the pretty town of Aguacatlan, of some five thousand inhabitants, having a fine plaza surrounded by shade trees, and a conspicuous

church and convent. The porada of Aguacatlan is one of more pretension than any on the route, having a large corridor in front, over which is announced, in large letters, "Here may be found every convenience for persons of good taste." The offices surrounding the court-yard were each labelled, and it was very gratifying to notice over one, "Here the bread is made with the greatest cleanliness." On the following morning our route from Aguacatlan to Islan lay for ten or twelve miles through the most fertile and best cultivated valley we had yet seen, and better covered with farm-houses and villages; still the cultivation is careless, antique, and barbarous, the plough in use being no more than a sharpened log of wood. The afternoon of this day brought us to the Barrancas, the wildest and most picturesque scene on the whole route from the Pacific to the Atlantic. The barranca is a gorge several thousand feet deep, separating two ranges of mountains, and the descent is by a zig-zag road along the face of the left-hand range, with this tremendous gulf on the right; the bottom of this gorge being reached, a little advance shows that we are still on the summit of a mountain, for another opening of still greater depth appears on the left hand, the bottom of which has also to be reached. The road there continues in this deep and shady valley, along the banks of a rocky stream, and beneath overhanging precipices for some miles. In this wild and difficult pass, by some capricious impulse is seen the only evidence of national energy, or internal improvement which came under my notice. A broad, handsome, well-made, paved carriage-road is being cut from the face of the mountain, descending it in a succession of inclined planes, turning one upon another, and much of the road is already completed. Ascending from these shady depths by a precipitous road, we reached, a little after night, the miserable village, but good porada of Mochotitli. Leaving this village early in the morning, we entered upon the lonely, desolate table-lands of Mexico; but although uncheered by shrubbery or cultivation, we had the advantage of a good level road, which towards evening brought us rather suddenly upon a different scene. From the brow of the elevated plain upon which we had been travelling, we looked down upon an extensive green valley, spread over with fields of the magüey plant, from which the brandy of the country is distilled. Immediately beneath us was the town of Tequila, with its houses and church domes shooting from amid groves of trees. Tequila, although constructed with handsome houses and regular streets, owed much of its effect to distance; for, in passing through it, the appearance of the whole place was one of poverty, dilapidation, and decay. Sleeping that night at the village of Amelatan, on the following morning, (Sunday,) May 10th, under a broiling sun, in clouds of dust, and amid troops of mules, at 11 o'clock we entered the truly beautiful city of Guadalajara, but not without seeing something of the benighted policy, constructed to facilitate robbery, and sustain a rapacious soldiery, the system which scarce permits an article to move from one part of the country to another, without taxation. Although we had now advanced so far in the interior, at the garita, or interior custom-house, one of our mules was selected to be unloaded, while a slovenly epauletted fellow—some Mexican general or colonel, undoubtedly—overhauled the baggage to see that we were not smuggling. Had we really been loaded by contraband articles, it would have given us no annoyance, as he was only stationed there to make his living by taking bribes. However, we had no favours to ask, and did not chose to pay him to release us from the detention.

Guadalajara is a very showy city, of palace-like houses, and enormous churches and convents, covering many squares of the city; concealing in their recesses a vast population lost to life and usefulness. Flowers and gardens seemed to be a prevalent taste, and the verandahs or iron balconies projecting from the second stories were so filled with vases of flowers as to give along the length of elegant streets the appearance of hanging flower-gardens. A broad and shaded paseo extends for a mile and a half along one side of the city, and terminates in a

handsome rose-hedged park and garden. Fountains of stone and bronze, bubbling forth clear cold water, are seen in every direction. But these are all remnants and splendours of the past—the present is in strong contrast. Poverty, vice, and wretchedness are its characteristics; beggars forming the great population of the streets, and the prisons thronged with criminals of the vilest character, and existing in the most disgusting filth.

From Guadalajara a line of diligences runs to Vera Cruz, and this line is worthy of all commendation. The conveyances are good Troy-built coaches; the horses and mules are in fine order, and the coachmen possess great skill and dexterity. Originally, the coachmen were all Yankees; but now they are Mexicans who have grown up on the road, and among the coaches and horses. The fondas (hotels) are regulated by a system extending along the whole route, prescribing what shall be given, and the hours of meals, and also regulating the charges. These rules also direct that every passenger shall be furnished with clean sheets and pillow-case, which no one has used, at every lodging-place on the route. The hours of travel are from three to four in the morning to the same hour in the afternoon.

Leaving Guadalajara at half-past three in the morning, our first day's journey was over a desolate-looking rolling table-land, in many places rocky; the soil was a stiff blue clay, here and there broken by the plough and ready for corn, but the general face of the country was covered by a short yellow dried grass. The road (thanks to Nature!) was generally good; but where she had left any impediments, art had disdained to remove them; and in some places, for short distances, our strongly-built coaches had terrible encounters. Over thirty leagues of such a country, by 4 o'clock in the afternoon, we reached the wretched little hamlet of San José, and the diligence coming in the opposite direction not having arrived, we were compelled to await its arrival for dinner. The delay became unusual, and the sun was going down, leaving San José and the desolate country about it to the additional gloom of night, when the expected stage rattled into the court-yard; one solitary passenger leaped from it, with his dress all loose and disordered; his trunk being taken from the boot, he gave it a kick of ineffable disgust, and which betrayed its lightness and emptiness. While we had been awaiting his arrival to dinner, he had been lying under the coach with his mouth to the ground, and a carbine at his head, and a band of robbers had been appropriating his property; they stripped him even to his suspender buckles, and asked what he was, where he was from, &c., concluding by beating him with their swords. The robbers—three in number—were masked. The minuteness of their inquiries caused us to feel somewhat apprehensive, as, in case of their ascertaining our nationality, they might think they rendered the state some service by taking our lives; and consequently no choice was left us but to fight in case of an attack. The Mexican servant accompanying us being called into the council expressed his willingness and ability to handle a gun. In addition to the arms in our possession, two fowling-pieces were obtained from the manager of the fonda; and as it was more than probable the robbers were from the village itself, and had their agents about us at this time, we gave some little publicity to our preparations. I discharged a Colt's pistol, and reloaded it, in presence of this respectable public. Having made these preparations, and arranged our plan of defence, we started at four in the morning, and were upon the look-out, finger on trigger, for two or three hours; after this our uneasiness somewhat subsided, and we made the day's journey safely, and to our own satisfaction, if not to that of the robbers. Through most of this day the country was very much the same as that of yesterday; destitute of population, water, or any growth but the nopal, or prickly pear, and a few scattering acacias. Late in the afternoon it was quite refreshing to come upon a fine valley prairie, watered by a small stream, and covered with wheat-fields.

ready for the harvest. Our stopping-place for the night was a town of about eight thousand inhabitants, called Lagos, rather a neat place, with the usual share of enormous churches. From Lagos our road, on the following morning continued through the same beautiful prairie and waving wheat-fields, upon which we had entered the preceding evening, and this was the character of the country until our arrival in the afternoon at the mining town of Guanajato. This city has a very picturesque situation, climbing up the sides and over the summits of a range of hills; the streets are exceedingly intricate and precipitous. For miles before reaching the city there are a succession of immense establishments for reducing the metals from the ore. Viewed from one of the surrounding elevations, it appears as though there was a separate town on each hill as far as the eye can see, the church crowning each summit. Here we sat down to table with some more unfortunate fellows, who had been robbed the preceding evening in the stage approaching us. In this case there were eight robbers; and not feeling it to be necessary to go far, or take much trouble in the matter they robbed this stage in sight of the gates of the city of Queretero—a city of 20,000 inhabitants; not even taking the precaution to mask themselves; and one of the robbers on the following day, near the door of our hotel, asked a gentleman whom he had relieved of his purse and watch, for the light of his cigar. No one acquainted with the country would take the responsibility of denouncing a robber; to do so would take nothing from his impunity, and would insure the assassination of the informer. Soon after leaving Guanajato, we passed from the rugged mountain region in which it is situated, to a continuation of the fertile valley upon which we had been the preceding day, and continued along this our whole day's journey of forty leagues, to the handsome city of Queretero, passing on the way several pretty towns of five or six thousand inhabitants each. Just before reaching the town of Celayo, we fell in with a group of half-naked peasants, some on foot and some on donkeys, being driven in by a few Mexican soldiers to form part of the army destined for Matamoras. The stage stopped one day, being Sunday, in Queretero, and on the first night of our arrival the house of a curate nearly opposite to us was entered by a band of robbers, and stripped of all its portable valuables, with five thousand dollars in specie.

As an evidence of the facilities of Mexican civilization in this handsome and populous city of Queretero, having occasion to receive six cents in change, I was compelled to take it in four cakes of white soap, the common currency of the country. Before leaving this city on Monday morning, we called a council of war to determine whether we should defend ourselves or yield, in case of an attack. There were eight of us, but one was a priest, the other an old man of seventy, two were invalids, and none would entertain for a moment the question of war. They had no arms; we therefore laid ours aside and determined to submit quietly to any fate. We fortunately entered Mexico on the evening of the second day from Queretero without any interruption.

(7.) *Matamoras to Monterey and Saltillo.*

For the following very interesting description of this route, and of the country through which it passes, we are indebted to Mr. WM. P. STAPP, who was captured by the Mexicans at Mier, in December, 1842, and in company with his ill-fated companions, was marched over this road, to Mexico, and thence to the castle of Perote. This route is now occupied by the invading army under Gen. TAYLOR.

Leaving Matamoras, our route bore off for a few days in a northwesterly direction, through a level and fertile valley, interspersed with numerous beautiful ponds and lakes. We then struck the ascent to the central plains, or tablelands of Mexico, and continued our march at stages varying from twenty-five to

thirty-five miles a day, until having completed a distance of near two hundred miles, we reached the little village of Sacata, on the river San Juan.

Three days' march from Sacata, brought us to Cataretta, the most beautiful village within the confines of Mexico. Perched upon an emerald knoll, swelling gently up from the river San Juan, which girds its base, its miniature fortifications, steeples, towers, and surrounding gardens, lent it a witchery of look, that sunk upon all our souls with the magic of a fairy spell. It seemed we were not entirely unexpected either, as a band of delicious music met us at the water's edge, and in strains of enchanting harmony, welcomed us through its massive archway. Its bells rung out their sweetest peals, whilst numerous rockets careering through the air, kindled the very atmosphere above into a luminous blaze. In the midst of its marble square, a murmuring fountain sung untiring lullabies; and lofty pyramids distributed around, held groups of youthful pyrotechnics, as jocund and brilliant as the sparkling messengers they sent up. Fronting a rostrum overhung by a raised pavilion, was assembled a gay and holiday multitude, listening to an orator, who, in the purest Castilian, and with the most graceful elocution, was there to welcome and congratulate our party.

A heavy and unintermitted rain detained us in this village through the following day and night, and on the morning of the 23th, we resumed our march for the neighbouring city of Monterey.

The valley of Monterey, or the San Juan, as it is indifferently termed, through which we now pursued our way, is unsurpassed in the world for its fertility, the brilliancy and luxuriance of its vegetation, the salubrity of its climate, and the picturesque character of its scenery. Narrowing as it extends westward, its breadth, for near a hundred miles below Monterey, varies from fifteen to twenty miles, the lands sloping with the most gentle descent from the low mountain on either side to the river. From the sides of these hills burst innumerable springs of the most delicious water, furnishing convenient means of artificial irrigation during the protracted droughts to which these regions are subject. Here, in friendly neighbourhood, are to be found, the oak and the pecan tree, the plantain and the orange, the pine-apple and banana, whilst fields of wheat and maize stretch down from the mountain's base, to extended plantations of sugar and maguey.

The latter crops are by far the most profitable of any branches of agriculture pursued in Mexico. Many of the sugar estates are reputed to yield above a million of pounds of refined sugar, with molasses sufficient to pay the entire expenses of their cultivation, and the cost of preparing the crop for market.

The cultivation of the maguey, (the *Agave Americana*), from whose saccharine juices pulque is made, is still more extensively carried on, yielding enormous returns, and being besides indigenous to every variety of Mexican climate, and elevation of soil. Whole tracts of country are to be found where the face of nature presents one unvaried field of this sharp and thorn-leaved plant.

We continued our way along the banks of the river that intersects this beautiful valley, crossing and re-crossing it at distances of every ten miles.

Monterey (the city of the mountains) is the capital of New Leon, and amongst the largest towns in Eastern Mexico. It is an old Spanish city, and is situated on the head-waters of the San Juan, between two lofty mountains, built in a style of considerable taste and splendour, and contains between five and six thousand inhabitants. It is about 288 miles from Matamoras, and 200 from Camargo. Six miles from Monterey there is a splendid hot spring; and about twenty miles distant southwardly, three hundred yards from a large cave, there is a vein of solid silver in the rock, which the Mexicans get out, in small quantities, with a cold chisel. The silver is said to be pure—the vein is seen shining in the rock.

Horses performing the journey from Matamoras to Monterey are deemed unfit for further service, so completely are their feet destroyed by the nature of the road over which they pass—nor does shoeing protect them from this injury.

In the summer season, the thermometer at Monterey ranges from 85 to 105 in the shade. It was in this city where SANTA ANNA, then a wayward cadet of sixteen, acquired his knowledge of military tactics, under Gen. ARREDONDO.

The region round about is wild and romantic beyond description; bold and rugged hills towering peak above peak, whilst spread out along their base creep wooded and smiling valleys, robed in beauty and adorned with cultivation. At twelve miles' distance, the loftiest summit, fifteen hundred feet high, takes the name of the *Camanche Saddle*, from its striking resemblance to the peculiar form of that cavalry equipment in use amongst those Indians. To the south, in the same range of hills, is also to be seen the famous Puerto de los Muertos, (or gate of the dead,) being a gloomy gorge or pass in the mountain, through which, alone, from Jalapa to Monterey, wheeled carriages can ascend from the coast to the table-land. Descending again into the beautiful valley of the Monterey, we continued up the river, passing through unfenced plantations on our route, walled in on either side by parallel ranges of mountains, that from crag and cavern flung back the strains of our bugles in a thousand weird and mocking echoes. A march of thirty miles brought us to Rinconada, a large ranch near the river San Juan, running up for several thousand acres into a cove in the mountains.

On Sunday, the 5th of February, we entered Saltillo, a neat and populous city, of some ten thousand inhabitants, situated in the extreme southern part of Coahuila, and on the head waters of the San Juan. The grounds in its immediate vicinity, with the numerous gardens of the city, are irrigated by beautiful fountains of water, springing up in various parts of the town. The valley here is broad and filled with the most luxuriant herbage, whilst at no great distance to the north, rise dreary mountains from the midst of desolate and barren-looking plains. Such contrasts of mountain and meadow, fertility and barrenness, beauty and deformity of landscape, are frequent in the Northeastern States of Mexico; every diversified aspect of soil and production being found grouped within the narrowest compass. An antique and massive-looking church adorns the public square of Saltillo, and many private residences of size and pretension, indicate a high degree of opulence and taste in its owners.

POSITION AND ROUTE OF THE AMERICAN ARMY.

The plan of the city of Matamoras, which is at the present time (July, 1846) the head quarters of the American Army, under Gen. TAYLOR, is very similar to that of Savannah. The streets are not wide, but run at right angles, and there are several public squares, which give an airy appearance to the place. Most of the houses are built of clay and twigs. The population was, in 1834, about seven thousand. Prior to that time a considerable trade in dry goods had been carried on with the interior towns, Durango, Monterey, &c., and with the Indians. In this business, several Americans have amassed considerable fortunes. Since 1834, the trade of the place has fallen off, and the population diminished. It is now mainly sustained by the income from the sale of cattle, hides, tallow, mules, wool, specie, &c. The ground in the rear of the city is subject to inundation during the wet season to the depth of several feet.

The water of the Rio Grande is very similar to that of the Mississippi. The soil is universally sandy. From its loose nature, the river frequently changes its channel—but thirteen years ago the city of Matamoras bordered upon the river, now it is at the distance of nearly a mile from the city.

General Taylor's head-quarters and staff occupy a very beautiful position.

The Rio Grande, after touching Matamoras at its western extremity, runs round and forms a beautiful curve, and approaches within five hundred yards of the principal square, the streets running straight down to the river, as they do at the western extreme, where it approaches very near the buildings. In this circle, about thirty paces from the bank, on the Matamoras side, under a lone tree, stands the tent of the hero of many battles.

The waggon-road between Point Isabel and Matamoras, is impassable for loaded waggons during the wet season. A gentleman who passed on this road in July last, says that from the river to the Palo Alto, some nine miles, there was not altogether half a mile of head road. The mud was generally a foot deep, and in some places two or three feet deep, and there was at least four miles of water, in many places hardly fordable for horses. A friend who accompanied him, captured a gar fish on "six miles prairie," between the battle-fields, which was nearly three feet long. He had passed over the same place four or five times when it was perfectly dry, with no appearance of having ever been overflowed. At the Resaca de la Palma, where a road passes between the ponds, there was but one pond, and that deep enough any where for a respectable sized steamboat to pass through it. Two-thirds of the Palo Alto battle-field was at the same time covered with water.

The first American naval officer who visited Matamoras officially by water, was Captain U. P. LEVY, of the U. S. corvette *Vandalia*. He ascended the river in his barge, in June, 1840, much to the astonishment of the natives. The current was very rapid, and the crew in the barge had to land and tack boat up at several points, notwithstanding they had a fine wind and twelve oars.

On the 18th of June last, the steamer *Aid*, with provisions, &c., for the troops stationed at Reynoso, made the first attempt to ascend the river above Matamoras. Messrs. Mead and Wood, topographical engineers, accompanied her for the purpose of making a survey and map of the river. Reynoso, by the river, is 180 miles from Matamoras, and about 80 by land. The distance from Matamoras by Reynoso and China to Monterey is about 275 miles. This is the most direct road, but it is seldom travelled, because of the scarcity of water. By the way of Capadero, the distance is 300 miles, and this is the route generally travelled. By the way of Mier and Saralvo, the distance is about 350 miles, with the inconvenience of crossing a very difficult ford or ferry at Camargo—the ascent of which, on crossing the St. John's, where the traveller again takes up with the road to Saltillo, is exceedingly steep and formidable.

To arrive at Saltillo, the army must pass through Monterey—the road between the two places winding along a deep ravine, between two deep mountains, the sides of which are steep, and covered with rock. The width of the valley varies from one to two miles. The distance is 80 miles, and the pass can be obstinately defended by good troops, with ample means. There is one farm-house on the road called the "Ricenda." Waggons travel over the road, and there is an abundance of water, contained in a natural creek, which continues along some distance near the road, and in artificial ponds. These last could be drained by an enemy. Monterey is about 230 miles from Matamoras, and 200 from Camargo. There is only one village between Monterey and Camargo, which is 35 miles this side of the former, and is called Caidereta, but there are occasionally ranchos along the road, and plenty of fresh beef, water and musquit wood. In one instance, however, it is some 20 to 27 miles between watering-places, which could be avoided by taking some new route. This road is level, and heavy for waggons in wet weather. The distance from Camargo to Mier is 24 miles. Camargo is three miles from the Rio Grande, on the Rio San Juan. From Camargo to Matamoras it is about 110 miles; and on the enemy's side of the river the road is good for waggons, but on this side the road is not cut out all the way for waggons.

CHAPTER VIII.

INHABITANTS, POPULATION, AND GOVERNMENT OF MEXICO.

INHABITANTS.

The *inhabitants* of Mexico are generally divided into seven distinct races, though there are various definable and indefinable intermixtures of all these. The first class are the Europeans. The second race consists of the Creoles, or native whites of the European race. In these were found the titled nobility. The third race comprehends the Mestizos, or the offspring of whites and Indians. They are as numerous almost as the Indians. They are almost white. The fourth race is that of the Mulattoes, or the offspring of whites and negroes. The fifth race is that of the native Indians. The sixth comprehends the African negroes and their descendants. They have straight hair, are few in number, and are all either free or under the protection of laws whose eventual operation is to liberate them. The seventh race is the offspring of negroes and Indians, called Zamboes or Chinese.

The Indians form about two-fifths of the whole population. They have not only survived the process of civilization, but their number is on the increase. There are now hardly any other classes of people than the rich and poor. The titled nobility were always Creoles, and were the highest. The lawyers, merchants, and shopkeepers, are next in influence. The most numerous, and lowest, is the disorderly rabble that infests the cities, especially Mexico, where there are 20,000, who beg, steal, and, as a last resort, work for a subsistence. They resemble the Lazzaroni of Naples, and live much in the open air. They are partially fed by the convents, which have charitable funds for the daily distribution of food to the poor.

Of the number of the inhabitants we cannot speak with certainty, as no census has been taken recently.—All writers, however, agree that the population fairly estimated is about as represented in the following table, which presents a view of the population of the states and territories, together with their capitals.

States.	Population.	Capitals.	Population.
Chiapas - - -	93,000	Chiapas - - -	3,000
Yucatan - - -	500,000	Merida - - -	10,000
Tabasco - - -	75,000	Tabasco - - -	5,000
Oaxaca - - -	600,000	Oaxaca - - -	40,000
Vera Cruz - - -	200,000	Vera Cruz - - -	30,000
Puebla - - -	900,000	Puebla - - -	70,000
Mexico - - -	1,500,000	Tlalpan - - -	6,000
Mechoacan - - -	450,000	Valladolid - - -	25,000
Queretaro - - -	200,000	Queretaro - - -	40,000
Guanaxuato - - -	450,000	Guanaxuato - - -	60,000
Xalisco - - -	800,000	Guadalaxara - - -	60,000
Zacatecas - - -	272,000	Zacatecas - - -	25,000
San Luis Potosi - - -	250,000	San Luis Potosi - - -	40,000
New Leon - - -	100,000	Monterey - - -	15,000
Tamaulipas - - -	150,000	Aguayo - - -	6,000
Cohahuila - - -	125,000	Monclova - - -	3,000
Chihuahua - - -	112,000	Chihuahua - - -	30,000
Durango - - -	175,000	Durango - - -	25,000
Sonora and Cinaloa - - -	180,000	Villa Fuerte - - -	4,000
Federal District - - -	-	Mexico - - -	180,000

				Territories.			
Trascala	-	-	-	Trascala	-	-	small town
New Mexico	-	-	150,000	Santa Fe	-	-	3,500
Colima	-	-	150,000	Colima	-	-	small town
Upper California	-	-	25,000	Monterey	-	-	2,500
Lower California	-	-	15,000	Loreto	-	-	-

M. de Mofras, in speaking of the population of Upper California, says that in 1842, the whole population, (exclusive of Indians) was only 5,000, distributed thus:

Californians descended from Spaniards	-	-	4,000
Americans from the United States	-	-	360
English, Scotch, and Irish	-	-	300
European Spaniards	-	-	80
French (including Canadians)	-	-	80
Germans, Italians, Portuguese, Sandwich-Islanders, and others	-	-	90
Mexican colonists	-	-	90
Total,			5,000

To these were to be added, at that time, 300 convicts and soldiers who had just arrived with General Micheltorena.

Of the foreigners, the Americans were particularly concentrated at Los Angeles and Branciforte, the English and Spaniards at Santa Barbara and Monterey, and the French at Los Angeles and Monterey.

Among the English and Americans were many discharged or runaway seamen; but the bulk of the latter consisted of emigrants from the West, the number of whom must have increased greatly in the last few years.

This population was distributed as follows:

District of San Diego	-	-	-	1,300
Do. of Santa Barbara	-	-	-	800
Do. of Monterey	-	-	-	1,000
Do. of San Francisco	-	-	-	000
Scattered over the country among the Missions	-	-	-	1,100
Total, spread over a territory of about 2,000 square leagues				5,000

The population of the whole confederacy is estimated at present to be about 7,000,000 souls, including about 3,000,000 Indians, and as mixed breed.

GOVERNMENT.

The government of Mexico is intended to be republican, but the frequent political changes which have taken place, renders a brief history of them somewhat necessary to a proper understanding of its present political condition. Her history is deeply interesting, and from it the world may glean many lessons of instruction. Our own country, now commencing a *new* era, would do well to study it.

Mexico was subdued by the Spaniards under Cortes, in 1521. Montezuma was at that time emperor, and fell in defence of his capital. The inhabitants were considerably advanced in civilization; they were acquainted with the arts of working gold, silver, and copper, and with a kind of printing; and their cities

were adorned with temples and palaces, and regulated by a police. The country continued a province of Spain till 1810, when an insurrection commenced in Durango, and after a variety of revolutionary movements, Inturbide, a Creole, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, in 1822. His imperial sway was brief, as his empire was overthrown in the following year, and he was banished the country. In 1824, the Mexicans adopted a constitution modelled on that of the United States. This constitution was not, however, sufficient to prevent civil dissensions, and the sword was too often appealed to, to decide the claims of rival chiefs or factions. But it preserved a nominal existence until 1835, when it was abolished by a decree of congress, suppressing the state constitutions, and establishing a central government. Several of the states opposed this measure, and the inhabitants of Texas, who were desirous of forming a separate state, having had their requests rejected, refused to acknowledge the new government, and established a provisional government for themselves. In the following spring, Santa Anna invaded Texas, and was defeated at San Jacinto, and made prisoner. After his return to Mexico, he remained upon his estate until 1839, when he made an attack upon the French who landed at Vera Cruz, in which he lost his leg, but recovered his reputation, and in the fall of 1842, overthrew and banished Bustamente. The chiefs of the army then assembled at a little village near Mexico, and established a provisional government, until a new constitution could be formed, for which purpose members were elected. They assembled, and after a free discussion, were about to adopt a *federal* constitution, but this created so much dissatisfaction throughout the republic, that the work of the convention was denounced, and the President closed its session. A new convention assembled, the members chiefly nominated by the President. They adopted a constitution which went into effect in 1844, a very good synopsis of which follows, as given by Mr. Thompson

Slavery is forever prohibited.

The liberty of the Press is guaranteed ; *a guarantee, however, purely theoretical ; it is no freer than in France, nor as free.*

Equally theoretical is the provision that no one shall be arrested but by the authority of law.

No taxes are to be imposed but by the legislative authority.

Private property not to be taken for public use, but with just compensation.

Mexicans to be preferred for public offices to strangers, if their qualifications are equal—*a qualification, by the way, of this provision which neutralizes it.*

Persons who have attained the age of eighteen years, if married, are entitled to the rights of citizens ; if unmarried, twenty-one years ; and those who have an annual income of two hundred dollars, either from labour or the profits of capital.

After the year 1850, those only are to exercise the privileges of a citizen who can read and write.

By becoming a domestic servant, the privileges of a citizen are suspended ; so, also, pending a criminal prosecution—being an habitual drunkard or gambler, a vagrant or keeping a gaming-house.

The rights of citizenship are lost by conviction of an infamous crime, or for fraudulent bankruptcy, or by malversation in any public office.

The legislative power is composed of a house of deputies and a senate, one deputy for every seventy thousand inhabitants ; a supernumerary deputy shall be elected in all cases to serve in the absence of the regular deputy.

The age prescribed for members of Congress is thirty years. They must have an annual income of twelve hundred dollars. One half of the members to be re-elected every two years.

The Senate is composed of sixty-three members, two-thirds of whom are to be elected by the departmental assemblies, the other third by the House of

Deputies, the President of the Republic, and the Supreme Court; each department to vote for twenty-three persons, and those having the highest number of votes of the aggregate of all the departmental assemblies are elected Senators. The judges of the Supreme Court and the President shall vote in like manner for the remaining third; and out of the names thus voted for by each of those departments of the government, the House of Deputies selects the proper number (twenty-one.) The first selection of this third of the Senators to be made by the President alone.

The President of the Republic and Judges of the Supreme Court are required to vote only for such persons as have distinguished themselves by important public services, civil, military, or ecclesiastical. Amongst others disqualified from being elected members of the House of Deputies are the Archbishops, Bishops, and other high Ecclesiastical officers.

The Senators elected by the Departments are required to be five agriculturists, and the same number of each of the following occupations—miners, merchants, and manufacturers; the remainder to be elected from persons who have filled the office of President, Minister of State, Foreign Minister, Governor of a Department, Senator, Deputy, Bishop, or General of Division. The age of a Senator is thirty-five years, and an annual income of two thousand dollars is required.

One-third of the Senate to be renewed every three years.

All laws must originate in the House of Deputies.

All treaties must be approved by both Houses of Congress. Congress has a veto upon all the decrees of the Departmental Assemblies which are opposed to the Constitution or the laws of Congress.

Congress are forbidden to alter the laws laying duties on imports which are intended for the protection of domestic industry.

No retrospective law or laws impairing the obligations of contracts to be passed.

The Senate to approve the President's nomination of foreign ministers, consuls, and of officers in the army above the rank of Colonel.

Members of Congress not to receive executive appointments except with certain limitations, amongst which is the consent of the body to which they belong.

The other powers of Congress are pretty much the same as in our own and other popular Constitutions. The President must be a native of the country, and a layman, and hold his office for the term of five years. It is made his duty to supervise the courts of justice, and he may prescribe the order in which cases shall be tried. He may impose fines not exceeding five hundred dollars upon those who disobey his lawful commands. Certain large powers are conferred upon him in relation to Concordats, Bulls, Decrees, and other ecclesiastical matters. He possesses a very qualified veto upon the acts of Congress. He may call an extra session of Congress, and prescribe the only subjects to be considered. He cannot exercise any military command without the consent of Congress. He cannot leave the Republic during his term of office, nor for one year after its expiration, but with the consent of Congress, nor go more than six leagues from the Capital, without the like permission. He can in no case alienate, exchange or mortgage any portion of the territory of the Republic. All his acts must be approved by the Secretary of the Department to which it properly belongs. He cannot be prosecuted criminally except for Treason against the national independence or the form of government established by the Constitution during his term of office, nor for one year afterwards.

During the temporary absence of the President, his functions devolve upon the President of the Senate; if his absence continues longer than fifteen days a President *ad interim* shall be elected by the Senate. The other grants of power to the Executive seem to be pretty much copied from our own Constitution.

The different Secretaries may attend the Sessions of either branch of Con-

gress, whenever required by them, or so ordered by the President, to give any explanations which may be desired. The Secretaries are responsible for all acts of the President in violation of the Constitution and laws which they may have approved.

The Council of the President consists of seventeen members selected by himself. These Councillors must be thirty-five years old, and have served at least ten years without intermission in some public station.

The Judges of the Supreme Court must be forty years old.

The government may be impleaded in this Court by any individual (I think a wise and just provision); as may also the Archbishops and Bishops in particular cases.

A permanent court martial is also organized, composed of Generals and lawyers, appointed by the President.

Each Department has an assembly of not more than eleven, nor less than seven members. Their powers are to impose taxes for the use of the Department; establish schools and charitable institutions; make roads and keep them in order; arrange the mode of raising troops which may be required of the Department; establish corporations; superintend the police, and encourage agriculture; propose laws to the Congress, and fit persons to the President for the office of Governor of the Department (from the persons thus recommended, the President, except in extraordinary cases, must make the selection,) establish judicial tribunals for their Departments, with many other powers of a similar character, and constituting the assembly a sort of state legislature, with jurisdiction of matters appertaining strictly to the Department.

The whole Republic is divided into sections of five hundred inhabitants. Each of these sections selects by ballot one elector. These electors in turn elect others in the ratio of one for every twenty of the electors thus primarily elected. These last constitute the electoral college of the Department, which again elect the deputies of the general Congress, and the members of the Departmental assembly. All persons who have attained the age of twenty-five years are eligible as primary electors. The secondary electors must also have an income of five hundred dollars a year. On the first of November preceding the expiration of the term of office of the President, each of the Departmental assemblies is required to meet and cast their votes for his successor. A majority of the votes of this assembly decides the vote of this Department. On the second day of January both houses of Congress assemble together and declare the election. If no one has received the votes of a majority of the Departments, the two houses of Congress make the election from the two who have received the greatest number of votes. If more than two have an equal number of votes, the election is made from those who have received such equal number. If one has received a high number, and two others have received a less and equal number of votes, Congress selects by ballot one of these last to compete with him who has received a high number. This election is required to be finished in a single session.

In cases of a tie a second time in these elections, the choice is to be made by lot.

Punishments shall in no case extend to confiscation of property, or to attainder.

No cruel punishment shall be inflicted in capital cases, only such as are necessary to take life.

The Judges are responsible for any irregularities or mistakes in their official proceedings. They hold their offices for life.

Amendments of the Constitution to be made by a vote of two-thirds of both branches of Congress.

The Catholic religion is established to the exclusion of all others. Most of the other provisions of the Constitution seem to be almost exactly copied from that of the United States.

CHAPTER IX.

THE ARMY.

THE unsettled state of Mexico, and the rapid succession of its political revolutions, have prevented the collection of statistical information of every sort; a census of the country has not been taken since the revolution in 1810, not even for the purpose of arranging the ratio of representatives in Congress. It is therefore impossible to give a correct statistical view of the Army and Navy.

IN 1827, Mr. Ward, the British Chargé, had recourse to the public documents, and from them, gave the condition of the military and naval force of that period. Mexico was then divided into eighteen military districts, each under the order of a Commandant, who received his instructions from the Minister of War. The whole military force for that year, consisted of 58,955 men, of whom 32,161 were actually under arms; the remainder ready to be called out should their services be required. The troops of the line were composed of twelve battalions of Infantry, each of 823 men, (full war compliment, 1,223); twelve regiments of Cavalry, each of 559 men, (war compliment, 815); and three brigades of Artillery, of 1,767 men in all. In addition to these, there were thirty-four Presidential companies, consisting entirely of Cavalry, and employed, principally, in the protection of the northern frontier; and eleven companies of local Infantry and Cavalry, distributed upon different points of the coast. The first consisted of 3,317 men in all; the second of 1,120; making a grand total of 22,788 regular troops under arms.

Mexico possesses only five fortresses, St. Juan de Ulloa, Campeche, Perote, Acapulco, and San Blas—most of them in a state of decay.

The following table, made up from the Government Report, exhibits the quantity of arms of all kinds, in the public magazines, or distributed among the troops. Most of the muskets, sabres, pistols, and lances, were purchased in 1824, and are in good order. The brass artillery are all of Spanish manufacture, and beautiful; but many of the iron guns, twenty years ago, were unfit for service; but since that time large additions have been made to their military stores:—

QUANTITY OF ARMS IN POSSESSION OF THE MEXICAN GOVERNMENT IN 1827.

Brass cannon of different calibres	-	-	-	-	308
Iron do do	-	-	-	-	456
Brass culverines	-	-	-	-	35
Mortars	-	-	-	-	17
Corranades, &c.	-	-	-	-	93
Cannon balls of from 36 to 6	-	-	-	-	210,145
Rounds of grape	-	-	-	-	19,913
Shells	-	-	-	-	38,644
Muskets	-	-	-	-	111,564
Rifles	-	-	-	-	2,000
Carbines	-	-	-	-	15,280
Pistols (pairs)	-	-	-	-	8,000
Sabres, &c.	-	-	-	-	26,500
Lances	-	-	-	-	6,000
Ball cartridges	-	-	-	-	3,701,113

Of the present actual condition of the military force of Mexico, we cannot for the reasons already stated, speak with any degree of accuracy; we must rely upon the personal observation of intelligent writers, whose residence in Mexico has given them some knowledge of its military and naval affairs.

In 1840, according to Mr. Mayer, the Mexican Army was composed of 14 Generals of Division, 26 Generals of Brigade. *Artillery*—3 Brigades, on foot, 1 do. mounted; 5 separate companies. *Engineer Corps*—1 Director General, 3 Colonels, 6 Lieutenant Colonels, 1 Adjutant, 14 Captains, 16 Lieutenants, 10 sub-Lieutenants. *Sappers*—1 Battalion. *Permanent Infantry*—8 Regiments of 2 battalions each, each battalion of 8 companies, each company of 112 men, officers included—or, in all, 14,336 persons; each soldier is paid \$11.93 3-4 per month. *Active Infantry*—9 Regiments; this body differs from the preceding, in being liable to service only when required by Government, or in other words, it is a sort of national militia, well drilled. Total number, 16,128. *Permanent Cavalry*—8 Regiments, each regiment composed of 2 squadrons, each squadron of 2 companies; each regiment composed in all of 676 men—or the 8 of 4,056 men, under a nominal pay of \$12.50 per month; 35 separate companies in various places throughout the Republic. *Active Cavalry*—6 Regiments, of 4 squadrons, each squadron of 2 companies.

The whole force amounting to about 40,000: this has been increased since 1840, and is now estimated at 50,000. Each officer and soldier is his own commissary, no rations being issued.

From a work, written by M. Duflot de Mofras, entitled “*Exportation du Territoire de l’Orégon, des Californies, et de la Mer Vermeille*,” and lately published in Paris, by order of the French King, under the auspices of the President of the Council, (Marshal Soult), and of the Minister of Foreign Affairs, (M. Guizot), we make the following interesting extract:—

“The Mexican army is recruited in part by the aid of countrymen and Indians torn by force from their villages, and in part among the criminals shut up in the prisons and penitentiaries. I was myself informed by a Mexican colonel at Guadalajara, that, in order to supply the place of deserters, he had caused the eight hundred malefactors in the public prison to be paraded before him by squads, in order to choose from among them the best-looking and most robust men. This being done in the first place, he then inquired of each one the length of his punishment, and a convict, for instance, who had been condemned to imprisonment at hard labour for ten years, had the residue of his punishment remitted, on condition of his serving five years in a regiment. What could be expected from such soldiers? In Europe, the military uniform is, for him who wears it, an honourable distinction. The army is purified constantly by turning over the criminals to penitentiary establishments. In Mexico, the difference between the galley-slave and the soldier is almost null, since, as we see, the regiments are filled up by means of miserable bandits.

“Desertion cannot fail to be very great in an army where no military discipline is exercised, where no authority is respected: the countrymen escape and regain their farms, while the malefactors rejoin their bands, or hide themselves in the suburbs of the cities.

“In spite of the efforts of the new President (Santa Anna) to augment the military resources of Mexico, he has only succeeded thus far, in forming an effective force of twenty thousand soldiers, in rags, barefoot in great part, and armed with bad English muskets.

“The regiments of infantry are commonly composed of two battalions, and are commanded by a colonel. Each battalion, under the orders of a lieutenant-colonel, and frequently of an honorary colonel, is at the most of three hundred men, and many of them do not count one hundred and fifty. The companies, of twenty-five to thirty men, have for commander a lieutenant-colonel or major, to whom are joined a captain, two lieutenants, and two sub-lieutenants, that is to say, *one officer for four soldiers*. There are the same disproportions and the same disorders in the cavalry, and squadrons of fifty men include six or seven officers.

“The artillery would find it difficult to assemble thirty field-pieces, mounted and of the same calibre: as to siege, hill, and coast batteries, workmen, bridge-equipages, and artillery-train, they are things wholly unknown. Almost all the powder, even, has to be bought in the United States or in England.

“The engineer-arm, which is quite on a level with the artillery in regard to *matériel*, is composed of a battalion of two hundred men in garrison at Matamorras, and of a company occupying the barracks, ridiculously called the *citadel* of Mexico.”

“It will be perceived, that, judging from the number and composition of the *états-majors*, the Mexican army ought to exceed that of all Europe united; for though it has hardly *twenty thousand soldiers*, it counts *twenty-four thousand officers*.

“Besides, if mere individual courage is not wanting either to officers or soldiers, still it is not sustained by that ardour of patriotism, which enables men to bear up patiently under sufferings, privations, and reverses, and facilitates the greatest achievements.”

“Composed of six (seven) millions of inhabitants, Mexico is subjected to the intrigues of six or seven thousand officers; and * * * this beautiful country, so prosperous and so opulent when it was called New-Spain, is now crushed beneath a military despotism.

“At every point of the Mexican territory, the magnificent works of fortification, erected at great cost by the Spaniards, are falling into ruins. The frontiers of the North are stripped, and the northern provinces wasted by hordes of savages, who advance to within thirty leagues of the city of Mexico.”

Hon. Waddy Thompson, our late Mexican minister, in speaking of the Mexican army, says that they are generally collected “by sending out recruiting detachments into the mountains, where they hunt the Indians in their dens and caverns, and bring them in chains to Mexico; there is scarcely a day that droves of these miserable and more than half naked wretches are not seen thus chained together, and marching through the streets to the barracks, where they are scourged, and then dressed in a uniform made of linen cloth or of serge, and are occasionally drilled, which drilling consists mainly in teaching them to march in column through the streets. Their military bands are good, and the men learn to march indifferently well, but only indifferently well; they put their feet down as if they were feeling for the place, and do not step with that erect and graceful air which is so beautiful in well-drilled troops. As to the wheelings of well-trained troops, or the prompt and exact execution of other evolutions, they know nothing about them. There is not one in ten of these soldiers who has ever seen a gun, nor one in a hundred who has ever fired one before he was brought into barracks. It is in this way that the ranks of the army are generally filled up. In particular emergencies the prisons are thrown open, which always contain more prisoners than the army numbers, and these felons become soldiers, and some of them officers. Their arms, too, are generally worthless English muskets, which have been condemned and thrown aside, and are purchased at a low rate by the Mexican government. Their powder, too, is equally bad; in the last battle between Santa Anna and Bustamente, which lasted the whole day, not one cannon ball in a thousand reached the enemy; they generally fell about half way between the opposing armies.”

The *Rancheros* form an important part of the Mexican cavalry, and in the late contest on the Rio Grande, they bore a conspicuous part; among their achievements was the murder of Col. Cross, before active hostilities commenced between the two armies. “*Rancheros*” is an appellation derived from their occupation and mode of life, and is common to a similar class of men who subsist on the panpas of South America, half Indian and half Spanish in their extraction, gaunt, shrivelled, though muscular in their frames, and dark and swarthy-visaged as they are, these men are the Arabs of the American continent

Living half of the time in the saddle, for they are unrivalled horsemen, with lasso in hand they traverse those vast plains in search of the buffalo and wild horse, who roam them in countless herds. The killing of these animals, and the preparation and sale of their hides, is their sole means of livelihood, other than occasionally lending a helping hand to some of the partisans in the civil wars that are being continually waged around them. Their costume generally consists of a pair of tough hide leggins with sandals of the same material bound together with leathern thongs, over which is a blanket with a hole in the centre large enough to allow the head to be thrust out, and which falls not ungracefully over their shoulders, leaving ample room for the play of their arms. Add to this a broad straw *sombrero*, and the lasso hanging at his saddle-pommel, and you have the *Ranchero* as he appears in the time of peace, or in the pursuit of his occupation. Join to this a long lance with a sharp spear head, ornamented with a strip of red bunting, on a horse as savage and unmanageable as himself, and his belt plentifully supplied with pistols and knives, and you have the *Ranchero* as a member of the troop of banditti, or as a soldier in a body of cavalry. Cowardly as they generally are in the open field, yet in a conflict among the chapparels of Mexico, or in an ambuscade, they are indeed a formidable enemy. Their power of enduring fatigue is almost inexhaustible, and a scanty meal per diem of jerked beef and plantain suffices them during months.

Such are the *Rancheros*, and under disciplined control they would be rendered the best light troops in the world. These are the men who comprise the great body of the Mexican cavalry, and they are to the armies of that nation what the Cossacks are to the Russians—ever on the alert, never to be surprised, and untiring in the pursuit of the foe when plunder, no matter how trifling, is to be obtained.

Such is the condition and character of the Mexican army; but notwithstanding the materials of which it is composed, it contains some men as brave as ever fought upon a battle field. The gallant manner in which they conducted themselves in the recent battles on the Rio Grande, has given the American people a high estimate of Mexican valour.

All accounts represent the Mexicans as having fought, on the 8th and 9th of May last, with the courage and desperation which would have reflected credit on the troops of any nation. They were nearly in a state of starvation, and had been promised the ample supplies of the American camp, in case they should secure the victory. They met the charge of our troops manfully, and stood the destructive fire pouring in upon them without giving way, until the works were encumbered with the dead and wounded; but notwithstanding their bravery, Mexicans cannot contend successfully against the superior skill and scientific knowledge of our officers, nor against the perfect discipline of our troops; therefore, in all contests with American soldiers, they must be defeated.

THE NAVY.

When the Spanish troops, after being driven from the capital and continent, occupied the castle of San Juan d'Ulloa, the necessity of driving them from this last stronghold, and the impossibility of effecting it without a naval force, induced the government to purchase six gunboats and two sloops of war in the United States, which, with one brig and two launches on the Pacific side, constituted, in 1823, the whole navy of Mexico. During the siege of the castle, which continued until November, 1825, this force gradually increased; until, in 1827, it consisted of one ship of the line, two frigates, one corvette, four brigs, one schooner, four gunboats, four large launches, and two pilot boats. With a squadron composed of such materials, Com Porter attempted to blockade Havana, but he was unable to keep the sea moment before Admiral Laborde's

squadron, and was forced to take refuge in Key West, whence he did not extricate himself for some time.

The present effective force consists of the steamer Guadalupe, 778 tons, two 68 shell guns, four of 12, and a machine for rockets; steamer Montezuma, 1100 tons, one 68 shell gun, two long 32's, two 32 pound gunnades, two 32 pound carronades, and a machine for rockets; brig Mexican, one shell gun of 12, and fourteen gunnades of 18; brig Vera Cruzana Libre, one shell gun of 32, six gunnades of 18, and 12 pound carronades; brig Tempoalteca, six carronades of 12; schooner Eagle, one shell gun of 32, and six 18 pound carronades; schooner Liberty, one shell gun of 12; schooner Morelos, one shell gun of 12; and four gunboats, each mounting a long 24 pounder on a pivot. All these vessels are stated to be deficient in men; and, with the exception of the two steamers and gunboat, require repairs before they would be able to put to sea.

It is uncertain whether the steamers Guadalupe and Montezuma now actually belong to the Mexican government. It is said that they were given as security by the Mexican government to an English firm in Vera Cruz, Messrs. M'Intosh & Manning, for a loan of between 500 and \$600,000. This firm having possession of them, and being desirous of protecting their own interests, took advantage of the absence of the American squadron under Com. Conner, to send them to Havana, a neutral port, where they arrived under British colours on the 24th of May last.

CHAPTER X.

REVENUE, RESOURCES, EXPENDITURES, AND PUBLIC DEBT.

THE Revenue of Mexico is derived from duties on imports and exports: from imposts on internal commerce, from direct taxation, from the post office, stamped paper, tobacco, lotteries, cockpits, and playing cards; from the excise on ice and pulqué, which is the common beverage of the people, and from other sources of trifling importance.

The tariff of duties on imports is constantly changing, but always high. A few years ago, the duty on all goods not prohibited, was 25 per cent. *ad valorem*; on most articles, the value was fixed by the tariff, the residue was to be valued by appraisers. Tobacco, in leaf, snuff, and segars, paid a duty of \$2 a pound. Raw cotton, cotton yarn below No. 60, cotton tapes, and twist, wrought wax, macaroni, vermicelli, gold, silver, and silk lace, and a few other articles, were entirely prohibited.

The articles which may be imported free of duty are as follows:

Scientific and surgical instruments, quicksilver, all unbound books, except those contrary to the Catholic religion, which are strictly prohibited, drawings, paintings, sculpture, models and designs for teaching different arts, useful machinery, printed or manuscript music, exotic seeds or plants, flax, raw or manufactured, and a few other articles.

All produce of the country may be exported free of duty except cochineal, vanilla, gold, and silver.

In 1840, (according to Mr. Mayer, who had recourse to the best sources of information,) the revenues are stated, in the report of the minister of the treasury, as follows:

Net proceeds, after deducting expenses of collection			
Imposts on foreign commerce	-	-	\$7,115,849
Do. on interior	-	-	4,306,585
Do. on property, income, &c.	-	-	466,061
Exchanges, &c.	-	-	307,427
Creditos activos	-	-	3,309
Balances of accounts	-	-	355
Enteros de productos liquidos	-	-	452,146
Extraordinary subsidy	-	-	103
Arbitrio estraordinario	-	-	78,177
Capitacion	-	-	483
Donations	-	-	13,662
Total			\$12,744,157

Returns of the Custom Houses for the years 1841 and 1842.

Custom Houses.	Tonnage Duty.	Net Proceeds.
Vera Cruz - - -	\$31,032	\$3,374,528
Tampico - - -	7,363	1,019,046
Matamoras - - -	3,525	279,627
Mazatlan - - -	6,245	397,213
Guayamas - - -	2,092	46,189
Monterey - - -	810	85,982
Acapulco - - -	573	7,193
San Blas - - -	2,719	190,270
Total,	\$55,259	\$5,399,948

Reports from the other custom-houses of the republic had not been received.

A very large revenue is derived from internal commerce, as every article of commerce passing from one department to another, provided it has been opened, pays a heavy tax. The duty on money, for example, sent from Mexico to Vera Cruz to be exported, is five per cent., besides the six per cent. duty for its exportation. In 1840, the revenue from this source amounted to four millions and a half.

Direct taxation is another fruitful source of revenue, for every thing is taxed, "from the splendid palaces, coaches, and plate of the wealthy, to the dozen eggs which the poor Indian brings to market." A large revenue is received from the product of the mines, as it receives about five per cent.

The government enjoys a monopoly of the tobacco trade, the net proceeds of which is equal to about \$600,000 per annum. The culture of tobacco is prohibited, except in the districts of Orizaba and Cordova, where it is limited to a certain number of acres. The tobacco thus produced, is sold to the government agents at a stated price, much below its real value, and by them manufactured into segars and snuff, and sold at a large profit.

The Indians bring ice upon their backs from the mountains, a distance of some forty miles from Mexico, from which the government derives a large revenue, some years amounting to \$50,000.

A very considerable amount of revenue is received from special licenses given to merchants or private companies to import articles prohibited by law, for which a stipulated sum is paid.

The following, although not pretending to minute accuracy, may be regarded as in some degree an approximation to a correct estimate of the present revenues of the government, and the sources from which they are derived.

From maritime custom-houses	-	-	\$6,500,000
Interior commerce	-	-	4,500,000
Direct taxes	-	-	3,000,000
Per centage on produce of mines	-	-	1,000,000
Profits of Mints	-	-	500,000
Tobacco monopoly	-	-	500,000
Post office, lotteries, manufactures of powder and salt	-	-	500,000
Tolls and all other sources	-	-	500,000
Total,			\$16,000,000

It is proper to add to this amount the taxes levied by the different departments which may be stated at four millions more, making an aggregate of twenty-one millions, to which an addition should be made of five or ten millions more, which is paid, but embezzled, and therefore does not find its way into the public treasury.

In 1803, according to Mr. Poinsett, the government received for the sale of playing cards, \$120,000; from cockpits, \$45,000; for the sale of Papal indulgences, \$270,000!

In 1829, the revenues amounted to \$11,215,848. The income from the post office, was \$178,738. In 1840, the lotteries produced \$215,437; the cost of managing them as \$158,485, leaving a balance of \$56,952.

Expenses of the Government.

In 1833, according to the report of the secretary of the treasury, the expenses amounted to \$22,392,508. Of this sum, \$16,466,121 was devoted to the army. In 1840, the whole expenses were \$13,155,922; of the army, \$8,000,000.

The restrictions placed upon commerce, both internal and external, have given rise to an immense amount of smuggling, which the republic has no power to prevent; as the reader will at once perceive, when he learns the fact, that Mexico possesses a frontier of five thousand miles on the Pacific, three thousand miles on the United States and Texas, and above two thousand five hundred miles on the Gulf of Mexico; making in all ten thousand five hundred miles of frontier to guard against illicit trade, without scarcely an individual on the whole space to give notice of any depredation that may happen.

Public Debt.

The public debt of Mexico is at the present time quite formidable. In 1841, Mr. Mayer says it was \$84,150,000. Mr. Thompson gives it, in 1844, as a little less than \$100,000,000; and as they are now engaged in the third war since that period, it is safe to say that the public debt is now more than \$100,000,000. In 1842, the internal debt amounted to \$18,550,000; for the payment of which the customs were mortgaged, and was to be paid in the following subdivisions:

17 per cent. of the customs devoted to a debt of	\$2,040,000
15 do.	do. do. 410,000
12 do.	do. do. 2,100,000
10 do.	do. do. 3,100,000
8 do.	do. do. 1,200,000
10 do.	do. Tobacco fund debt 9,700,000
162-3 do.	Interest on English debt
10 do.	Garrison fund
98 2-3	\$18,550,000

11-3 balance, clear of lien, for the government!

The foreign debt is still larger; and including the above, the entire national responsibility, as it existed at the end of 1842, was as follows:

Internal debt	-	-	-	-	\$18,550,000
Debt to English creditors	-	-	-	-	60,000,000
United claims and interest, say	-	-	-	-	2,400,000
Copper to be redeemed	-	-	-	-	2,000,000
Claims for Hilazo	-	-	-	-	700,000
Bustamente loan	-	-	-	-	500,000
					<hr/>
					\$84,150,000

CHAPTER XI.

THE CHURCH—ITS WEALTH AND INFLUENCE.

THE Roman Catholic is the religion of Mexico, and is established by the constitution, to the exclusion of all others. The ecclesiastical establishment consists of one archbishop, (that of Mexico,) and nine bishoprics; namely those of La Puebla, Guadalajara, Valladolid, Durango, Monterey, Oajaca, Yucatan, Chiapa, and Sonora. All of these, except Sonora, have cathedral churches and chapters, which, with the collegiate chapter of Guadalupe, (in the environs of the capital,) contain 185 prebendaries and canonries, formerly in the gift of the king. The number of parishes is about 1200. In 1802, the number of ecclesiastics in the country, both secular and regular, was estimated at 10,000, or at 13,000, including the lay-brothers of convents, and other subordinates of the church. The secular clergy was composed of about 5000 priests; the regulars, wearing the habits of different orders, of nearly an equal number, of whom 2500 resided in the convents of the capital alone. It appears from reports presented to the Mexican congress in 1826 and 1827, by the minister for ecclesiastical affairs, that the number of the secular clergy in 1826, was estimated at 3473, and in 1827, at 3677. The regular clergy was divided into fourteen provinces, possessing 150 convents, which contained in all, 1918 friars.

The following table shows the situation and number of convents, and other particulars, derived from the reports of the Mexican minister:

Situation of Convents.	Number of Convents.	Individuals in each.	Have taken the habit in last 5 years.	Professed in same time.	Now in novitiate.	Curacies.	Missions.
Dominicans—							
Mexico	10	123	15	8	6	2	18
Puebla	6	42	4	4	—	2	—
Oaxaca	5	50	13	11	2	9	—
Ciudad Real	4	44	7	7	—	9	—
Franciscans—							
Mexico	34	532	116	64	20	2	33
Queretaro	15	162	86	33	9	3	8
Potosi	11	125	20	12	8	4	19
Guadalajara	7	128	28	17	1	2	23
Merida	1	61	—	—	—	3	—

Augustins—							
Mexico	11	143	49	18	12	2	—
Salamanca	11	92	34	28	4	2	--
Carinelites—							
Mexico	16	224	50	19	11	—	—
Mercedarians—							
Mexico	19	192	40	26	14	—	—
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	150	1918	462	247	87	40	101

There were at the same period six colleges in Mexico for the propagation of the faith, distributed as follows :

	Number of Religious.	Number of Missions.	Where.
Mexico	66	21	Upper California.
Queretaro	56	9	Sonora.
Pachuca	42	9	Cohahuila and }
Orizava	35	0	Tamaulipas. }
Zacatecas	83	22	Las Tarahum- }
Zapopan	25	0	aras and Texas. }
	<hr/>	<hr/>	
	307	61	

The salaries of the bishops, in 1802, were supposed to be as follows

The Archbishop of Mexico	-	-	-	\$130,000
The Bishop of Puebla	-	-	-	110,000
Do. Valladolid	-	-	-	100,000
Do. Guadalajara	-	-	-	90,000
Do. Durango	-	-	-	35,000
Do. Monterey	-	-	-	30,000
Do. Yucatan	-	-	-	20,000
Do. Oaxaca	-	-	-	18,000
Do. Sonora	-	-	-	6,000
				<hr/>
			Total,	\$439,000

The value of the church property is estimated at ninety millions of dollars according to the annexed valuation :—

Real property in town and country	-	-	\$18,000,000
Churches, houses, convents, curates, dwellings, furniture, <i>jewels</i> , precious vessels, &c.	-	-	52,000,000
Floating capital—together with other funds— and the capital required to produce the sum received by them annually in alms	-	-	20,000,000
			<hr/>
Total	-	-	\$90,000,000

This estimate, large as it is, is undoubtedly too small ; no one pretends to know the value of the coin, jewels, and ornaments, belonging to the various churches ; which have been accumulating ever since the establishment of the Catholic religion ; and their real estate is constantly increasing. They own very many of the finest houses in Mexico and other cities (the rents of which

must be enormous), besides valuable real estates all over the Republic. Almost every person leaves a bequest in his will for masses for his soul, which constitute an incumbrance upon the estate, and thus nearly all the estates of the small proprietors are mortgaged to the church. The property held by the church in mortmain is estimated at fifty millions.

Mexico is the only country where the church property remains in its untouched entirety. Some small amount has been recently realized from the sale of the estates of the banished Jesuits; but, with that exception, no President, however hard pressed (and there is no day in the year that they are not hard pressed), has ever dared to encroach upon that which is regarded consecrated property, with the exception of Gomez Farrias, who, in 1834, proposed to the legislative chambers to confiscate all the church property, and the measure would, no doubt, have been adopted, but for a revolution which overthrew the administration.

Mr. Thompson says that he has heard intelligent men in Mexico express the opinion that one-fourth of the property of the country was in the hands of the priesthood, and instead of diminishing, it is constantly increasing.

That the reader may have some idea of the magnificence and richness of the Mexican churches, we will transfer to our pages, the Hon. Waddy Thompson's description of the Cathedral at Mexico:—

“The Cathedral, which occupies the site of the great idol temple of Montezuma, is five hundred feet long by four hundred and twenty wide. Like all the other churches in Mexico, it is built in the Gothic style. The walls, of several feet thickness, are made of unhewn stone and lime. Upon entering it, one is apt to recall the wild fictions of the Arabian Nights; it seems as if the wealth of empires was collected there. The clergy in Mexico do not, for obvious reasons, desire that their wealth should be made known to its full extent; they are, therefore, not disposed to give very full information upon the subject, or to exhibit the gold and silver vessels, vases, precious stones, and other forms of wealth; quite enough is exhibited to strike the beholder with wonder. The first object that presents itself on entering the cathedral is the altar, near the centre of the building; it is made of highly-wrought and highly-polished silver, and covered with a profusion of ornaments of pure gold. On each side of this altar runs a balustrade, enclosing a space about eight feet wide and eighty or a hundred feet long. The balusters are about four feet high, and four inches thick in the largest part; the hand-rail from six to eight inches wide. Upon the top of this hand-rail, at the distance of six or eight feet apart, are human images, beautifully wrought, and about two feet high. All of these, the balustrade, hand-rail, and images, are made of a compound of gold, silver, and copper—more valuable than silver. I was told that an offer had been made to take this balustrade, and replace it with another of exactly the same size and workmanship, of pure silver, and to give half a million of dollars besides. There is much more of the same balustrade in other parts of the church; I should think, in all of it, not less than three hundred feet.

“As you walk through the building, on either side there are different apartments, all filled, from the floor to the ceiling, with paintings, statues, vases, huge candlesticks, waiters, and a thousand other articles, made of gold or silver. This, too, is only the every day display of articles of least value; the more costly are stowed away in chests and closets. What must it be when all these are brought out, with the immense quantities of precious stones which the church is known to possess? And this is only one of the churches of the city of Mexico, where there are between sixty and eighty others, and some of them possessing little less wealth than the cathedral; and it must also be remembered, that all the other large cities, such as Puebla, Guadalajara, Guanajuato, Zacatecas, Durango, San Louis Potosi, have each a proportionate number of equally gorgeous establishments. It would be the wildest and most random conjecture to attempt an

estimate of the amount of the precious metals thus withdrawn from the useful purposes of the currency of the world, and wasted in these barbaric ornaments, as incompatible with good taste as they are with the humility which was the most striking feature in the character of the Founder of our religion, whose chosen instruments were the lowly and humble, and who himself regarded as the highest evidence of his divine mission, the fact that "to the poor the gospel was preached." I do not doubt but there is enough of the precious metals in the different churches of Mexico to relieve sensibly the pressure upon the currency of the world, which has resulted from the diminished production of the mines, and the increased quantity which has been appropriated to purposes of luxury, and to pay the cost of much more tasteful decorations in architecture and statuary, made of mahogany and marble."

STATE OF EDUCATION.

In a country where the people are oppressed by a military and religious despotism, we are not to look for a very high standard of education. It is estimated that out of seven millions of people who inhabit Mexico, only 687,748 are able to read and write, and of these, 80,120 are Negroes and Indians. Education, which should receive the especial care of Republican governments, is least regarded in Mexico. In 1840, \$180,000 were expended for hospitals, fortresses, and prisons—\$8,000,000 for the army, (without a foreign war) and only \$110,000 were given to all the institutions of learning.

In the city of Mexico, there are four collegiate establishments, one being under the immediate supervision of the Archbishop, and supported by a portion of the ecclesiastical revenues, and the other three are under the care of the Government. There is also a normal school supported by the Government, devoted to the instruction of the soldiers of the army; improvement in this school is rewarded by advancement in rank. The city is also divided into parishes, in each of which there is established a school for boys and another for girls, supported by the Town Council. In the former, the pupils are taught to read, write and calculate, and are also instructed in religious and political catechisms. The same branches are taught in the girls' school, and in addition they learn sewing and other suitable occupations. The instruction, books and stationery are all furnished without charge. There is also a Lancasterian Company, composed of the most wealthy and educated citizens of Mexico, who are extending their schools all over the Republic; they are already in all the principal cities, towns, and villages. In these schools, like those already described in the capital, the pupils are taught without charge. Schools have also been organized in the Prisons and House of Correction for juvenile delinquents, which are taught by the most respectable ladies of Mexico, who devote a portion of their time to this very benevolent object. Besides all these establishments, there are, in the city of Mexico, a large number of private or select schools, which are conducted by foreigners as well as natives, so that in the matter of education, the Mexicans are making great advancement. God grant that they may soon realize the important truth—that man was created for a higher and a nobler purpose than to waste his energies upon the battle-field.

CHAPTER XII.

MEXICAN CHARACTER, HABITS, MANNERS AND SUPERSTITIONS.

A NATION composed of such diversified materials, as that of Mexico, can scarcely be said to have a *national* character ; although the Mexicans do possess *some* traits, which are decidedly national. The Indians, who are by far the most numerous class, are every where, with an occasional exception, the same poor, thriftless and degraded people, without cultivation, ambition or hope. They are a gentle, harmless race, grave and melancholy in their demeanor, and submit to the will of superiors without a murmur ; and hence they have long been grievously oppressed. They live mostly on barren and unproductive lands, and feed upon fruits of easy cultivation. It is not an uncommon sight in Mexico, to see scores of Indians, with panniers upon their backs, filled with ice, fruit, or vegetables, which they have thus brought from forty to sixty miles. They soon find a market for their merchandize, and then with the produce of their toil, hasten to a pulqué shop, to enjoy the brutalizing *pleasures* of intoxication, or to the gaming-table, where they soon lose their hard-earned treasure ; when, if not chained to the street gang for drunkenness, or “ forced to volunteer,” they trot back to their mountain-homes, to prepare for a similar expedition.

The Indians are allowed magistrates of their own race, who are called Caziques ; but these cannot be distinguished by their superior dress or intelligence, the only difference being, that the Caziques do no work ; but they are all alike indolent and poor.

The religion of the Indians, is that common to the country, but is so blended with their peculiar superstitions and mythology, that an American Catholic would scarcely recognize it as his own religion. They are fond of all the festivities of the church, and of its processions, and are delighted with the pageantry and show of their peculiar worship ; and it may be said with truth, that *religion, gaming and intoxication*, constitute their greatest enjoyments, and appear to be the chief end of their existence.

At the time of the conquest, the principal families perished, the priests were put to death, the manuscripts and hieroglyphical paintings were burnt, and the Indians who survived, fell into a state of ignorance and degradation, from which they have never emerged, and where they will remain until they are under the control or guidance of a race far superior to them in every essential element of civilization.

That they are readily susceptible of improvement, there can be no question. Their talent for drawing and carving in wood—their passion for flowers—their taste for music, and their sense of the beautiful, have all survived their political degradation ; and whenever placed in circumstances favourable to the development of their talents, they give ample evidence of their descent from a superior race. We cannot judge correctly of their character by seeing them, in their native mountains, or in the filthy dens among the leperos of Mexico ; but to do so, we must see them under the care and protection of some wealthy planter, where a suitable reward for labour calls forth industrious exertion, and where their social faculties are brought into active exercise. A scene described by Mr. MAYER, is so characteristic and truthful, and so much like those I have witnessed, that I cannot forbear presenting it to the reader. He visited the hacienda, or plantation, of San Nicholas, where a number of Indians were employed in the manufacture of sugar. He thus describes the scenes of the evening :—

“ At sunset, all the Indians employed on the premises assembled under the corridor on the basement floor, to account to the administrador for their day’s

labour and their presence. As he called their names, each one replied with *Alabo á Dios*,—"I praise God," and ranged himself against the wall in a line with those who had already responded. When the whole list had been examined, they were dismissed, and departed in a body singing an Indian hymn to the Virgin, the sounds of which died away in the distance as they plodded home over the level fields to their village.

"At night we heard the sound of a clarionet, bass-drum, and flute, at some distance from the dwelling, and on inquiry, discovered that a band of musicians had been organized in an adjoining village, by the owner of the hacienda. We mustered a company and strolled over. The whole of a large hut had been appropriated for a musical hall, where the performers were just assembling; while others, who had already arrived, were engaged in tuning their instruments. The leader was quite a respectable-looking Indian, decently dressed, who played the violin; the clarionet player was fortunate in the possession of cotton drawers and a shirt; the bassoon had a pair of drawers but no shirt; the serpent was the wildest looking Indian I ever saw, with long dishevelled black hair, and eyes worthy of his instrument; the big drum was a huge portly old negro, who reminded me of many of our performers on it at home; while the octave flute was an urchin of not more than twelve, the wickedest little devil imaginable, but a fellow of infinite talent and a capital performer.

"The night was rather too hot to permit us to remain long in the apartment with an Indian crowd; we therefore took our seats outside, where we were favoured by the self-taught amateurs with several airs from recent operas, performed in a style that would not have injured the reputation of many a military band at home.

"It may reasonably be argued from a scene like this, that the Indians have talents for one of the arts requiring a high degree of natural delicacy and refinement. If it had been the care of all Spanish proprietors gradually to bring forth their latent dispositions, as the Señores J. have done, Mexico would now present a picture very different from that of the degradation which fills its valleys with a slothful, ignorant, and debased multitude."

The *Mestizos*, descendants of Whites and Indians; *Mulattoes*, descendants of Whites and Negroes; and *Samboes*, descendants of Negroes and Indians—are scattered over the country as labourers, or live in the towns as artizans, workmen or beggars.

The Europeans, the white Creoles, the merchants, and the lawyers—who are generally composed of the younger branches of chief families, or the sons of Europeans—constitute the *good society* of Mexico. No people in the world are more kind-hearted or hospitable than the Mexicans. They are free, frank and courteous; and their social intercourse is characterised by politeness and warmth of manner, not by the dull, cold and unmeaning formalities which is common in countries claiming a much higher standard of civilization.

It is the usual custom, upon entering a parlor, for an intimate friend to embrace every member of the family. This hearty welcome being over, he is entertained in the best possible manner, nothing being neglected that will contribute to his enjoyment; and if the visitor *smokes*, as all Mexicans do, the lady of the mansion will take a delicate *cigarrito* from one of her golden cases, light it, touch it to her lips, and present it to her guest.

At parting, says Mr. Mayer, the ceremony is very formal. You bid good bye with an embrace, or if less acquainted, with a profound bow to each individual; you turn at the door of the saloon, and bow again; the master of the house accompanies you to the head of the stairs, where you shake hands and bow again; you look up from the landing of the first flight of stairs, and find him ready with another; and as you pass through the court-yard below, (if he like you, or you happen to be a person of consideration,) you find him gazing

from among the flowers over the balustrade, and still gracefully nodding farewell! Before this *finale* it is not very safe to put on your hat.

At the gaming-table, where the worst passions of our nature are brought into active exercise, good order and decorum always prevail, whilst kindness and tenderness of feeling are often strikingly manifested. Even the *robbers* will sometimes exhibit sorrow for the condition of the robbed, and give back a portion of their spoils. The following anecdotes, related by Mr. Thompson, strikingly illustrates this sentiment of kindness and goodness of heart:—

“On the 16th of June, 1842, the Texan prisoners of the Santa Fé expedition were released by General Santa Anna, that being the birth-day, or rather the anniversary of his saint (Saint Antonio,) which is the day kept by all Mexicans instead of their own birth-day. I knew that they were to be released on that day, on the parade-ground near that city, and fearing that the immense populace which would be assembled might offer them some violence, I went out, knowing that my official station would protect me, and might enable me to protect them. Never was fear more groundless, or a surprise more agreeable. Santa Anna reviewed on that occasion a body of more than 10,000 troops, and there were not less than thirty or forty thousand other persons assembled in the field. When the order for their liberation was given it was received with acclamation and shouts by the Mexican troops, which extended through the whole vast concourse. The officers and others threw pieces of money to the Texans, and as they passed through the crowd, instead of jeers and insults, every Mexican had a word of kindness for them, running up to them and shaking hands, and exclaiming, “*amigo! amigo!*” my friend, my friend! I saw one poor leper pull off his blanket and offer it to a Texan who was rather more ragged than he was himself. As they passed along the streets, men and women would run out from their shops and offer them bread and other articles. Let it be remembered that these men had invaded their country, and that they had been sedulously taught to regard them as their born enemies, *los Texanos* (the Texans) having all the associations with the Mexicans that the words *los Moros* (the Moors) had with their Gothic ancestors. I could not refrain from asking myself whether, if the people of any other country had invaded ours and been made prisoners, they would under like circumstances have passed through such a crowd not only without assault, but with such demonstrations of kindness and sympathy.

“An incident occurred while the prisoners were confined in Tacubaya, which is characteristic, not only of the Mexicans of both sexes, but of women every where. On one occasion, and it was one of the very few exceptions to the remark which I have just made, a subaltern Mexican officer struck a Texan who was at work on the streets; a young lady of one of the most respectable families, and I sincerely regret that I have forgotten her name, who happened to be passing by, called the officer to her, and asked him if he was a Mexican by birth. He replied that he was not. She said, ‘I am rejoiced to hear it, sir, and I did not suppose that you were, for I did not believe that any Mexican would be guilty of so cowardly an act as to strike a prisoner who dare not return the blow.’”

The dress of the wealthy and fashionable classes of Mexico, excels, in splendour and costliness, that of any people in the world, whose style of costume, in any degree, assimilates to their own. From the breaking out of the revolution, the popularity of the army has been so ascendant as to leave but a limited portion of the lay gentry unentitled to the use of the uniform. Generals, colonels, majors, and captains, are more common here than in the United States; and, besides, the number of those who have served and retired on pensions and offices, all who have ever held commissions, seem to arrogate the privilege of sporting the insignia of their former rank. Hence, uniforms, stiff with gold and em-

broidery, encounter you at every step, whilst the fanciful and more graceful attire of the civic elegant, frogged, laced, bedizened, and tasselled, lose nothing by comparison with their martial rivals.

MEXICAN WOMEN.

The Mexican ladies are extravagantly fond of dress, and wear a greater profusion of ornaments than those of any other country. In speaking of this characteristic, Mr. Thompson refers to two ladies he saw at the President's ball, whose dresses, not including ornaments, cost *one thousand dollars each*! The head-dress of another, which was thickly set with diamonds, cost *twenty-five thousand dollars*, besides other diamonds and pearls of corresponding value.

"Standing in her balcony, attired for the holiday, the drive, or her devotions, the Mexican lady reflects the full power of the best combination of foreign and native costume. Her *Parisien* gown, falling short in its embroidered skirts of her well-turned ankles and feet, (delicate almost to deformity,) and clothed in the invariable satin slipper and silken stockings, her rich lace mantilla, revealing a border of her raven hair, and depending in graceful folds down the voluptuous line of her rounded proportions, her ears, neck, and fingers, shining with the blaze of diamonds, and her dimpled hand clutching the pictured fan, the wand of the fair enchantress, before whose coquettish wave all hearts sink subdued, are the outlines of a style, below which the opulent and tonnish never venture abroad.

"At some other portal of the house may be seen her *donzella*, luxuriating in the freedom and fancy of the national *dishabille*. Her stunted petticoat of gaudy hue, challenges a more extended survey of her white clocked stockings and flowered slippers, whilst the moulded outline it drapes below, disdaining all restraint above the waist, smiles through a snowy chemise of worked linen cambric, like pensive lights through silver mist. Her plaited hair hangs down between her round brown shoulders, and should she go out, a long figured shawl or *reboso* envelopes her person and features to the eyes, whose dazzling brilliance and liquid tenderness it were profane to hide."*

As to the *beauty* of Mexican women travellers do not agree. Madame Calderon says that some of the finest specimens of female beauty she ever beheld, were in Mexico; she could see them every where—among the rich and poor, high and low, she found women of surpassing beauty. Mr. Thompson thinks there are no beauties in Mexico, and I regret to say that during all my travels in the country, I was so unfortunate as not to see a *beautiful* face. I do not mean to say that the Mexican women have no attractions or are destitute of personal charms: far from it—they are universally acknowledged to be *agreeable*, *fascinating*, *bewitching*.

Mr. Mayer says, that to confess the truth, he cannot say that the Mexican women "are beautiful according to our ideas of beauty in the United States. You do not see those charming skins, and rosy complexions, nor do you observe that variety of tint which springs from the mingling of many nations on our soil; but there is, nevertheless, something in Mexican women, be they fair or dark, that bewitches you while you look at them: it is, perhaps, a universal expression of sweetness and confiding gentleness. There is not so much regularity of features; no 'Attic foreheads and Phidian noses;' no 'rose-bud lips whose kisses pout to leave their nest;' no majestic symmetry to compel admiration: but their large magnificent eyes, where the very soul of tenderness seems to dwell, and their natural grace, conquer every one. Their gait is slow, stately, majestic. The commonest woman of the middle ranks you encounter on the streets, with but a fanciful petticoat, and her shawl or *reboso*, struts a queen.

* Strapp's Prisoners of Perote.

There are few things more beautiful than the salutation of a Mexican woman. Among themselves they never meet without embracing. But to men and strangers, on the street, they lift the right hand to near the lips, gently inclining the head toward it, and gracefully fluttering their fingers, send forth the recognition with an arch-beaming of the eye that is almost as bewitching as a kiss.

The aristocratic or better sort of Mexican ladies seldom appear in the street. They rise late, dress, and take their station in one of their open windows, which extends to the floor, where they may be seen until about five in the afternoon, when they ride on the Paseo, after which, until a late hour of the night, they may be seen at the theatre, cock-pit, or gaming-table; and when we add to this their religious observances, the reader will have a pretty good idea of the manner in which Mexican ladies pass away their lives.

The women of the middling and lower classes may be seen in the street at any time, and in large numbers. Their ordinary dress consists of a chemise and petticoat, satin slippers without stockings, and a long shawl worn over the head and wrapped close around the chin, and thrown over the left shoulder. In speaking of the habits of the Mexican women, we should not forget to mention that odious practice, so universal among them, of *smoking*. This custom, which has so long prevailed, is now, we are happy to say, becoming unfashionable, and in a few years, the offensive odour of burning tobacco will not be permitted to poison the atmosphere of a lady's parlour.

I do not know that Mexican women are *less* virtuous than those of other countries, but they certainly possess some peculiarities which would be publicly condemned by their sex elsewhere, even though they were (privately) equally guilty. Mr. Poinsett says that the *married* ladies are very pleasing in their manners, and that they are *said* to be *faithful* to the favoured lover, and that a *liason* of that nature does not affect the lady's reputation. There are, perhaps, many married ladies who are faithful to their husbands, and who have no other lovers than their rightful lords.

Mr. Thompson thinks that in this particular the Mexican women are slandered. He says he is quite sure that there is no city in Europe of the same size where there is less immorality; and he cannot see how it is *possible* to be otherwise, *because* every house in Mexico has but one outside door, and a porter always at that, and because the old system of *duenna* and a constant espionage are observed by every one to an incredible extent! These reasons are quite too superficial to need any argument to overthrow them. If Mexican women were not ardent in their love affairs, and if they had not the art and *ingenuity* common to their sex, *one* door and a *porter* might be slight obstacles; but, constituted as they are, *locks*, *porters* and *duennas* are not worthy of the least consideration.

Gambling.

A love of gaming is one of the strongest traits of Mexican character; and to it may be traced the hopeless poverty, and the moral and political degradation of the people. There is no distinct class in Mexico, known as gamblers or blacklegs, as in this country, but the vice is everywhere prevalent, pervading all circles, and is nowhere disreputable. It is no uncommon sight to see the President of the Republic and his chief officials gambling with priests and ragged leperos. The Government has its *card* manufactory, and derives a large annual revenue from the sale of cards—from cockpits and other gambling devices. The National, or favourite game appears to be *Monte*, which is played with cards, and always, necessarily, for money, as it cannot, like whist, be played merely for amusement. In the more chivalric days of Mexico, *bull-baiting* was a favourite sport, but it is now comparatively rare, the meaner amusement of *cock-fighting* having usurped its place. Besides the usual every-

day gaming, there is an annual festival celebrated by all sorts of games, in honor of *Saint Augustin*. The anniversary of this saint is celebrated at San Augustin, a little village about twelve miles from the city of Mexico. The preparations for this event are made in advance, so that when the day arrives the bankers have everything prepared to gratify the thousands who flock to their tables, to sacrifice their treasure upon the altar of this favourite saint.

Mr. Thompson, who visited this gambling festival, says that when he entered the cockpit, Santa Anna and General Bravo, with a large number of the most distinguished men in Mexico, and quite a large number of ladies of the highest circles were there, and all of them were not only delighted with the cruel sport, but bet their money freely upon the issue of the battles.

Madame Calderon also visited this festival, and, as she remained several days, she was enabled to give a graphic description of the scenes there enacted. She says:—

“A good deal of play on a small scale goes on in the private houses, among those who do not take much part in the regular gambling; but all are interested more or less; even strangers; even ladies; even ourselves. Occasionally news is brought in, and received with deep interest, of the state of the banks, of the losses or gains of the different individuals, or of the result of the *vacas*, (a sort of general purse, into which each puts two or three ounces) by different stragglers from the gambling-houses, who have themselves only ventured a few ounces, and who prefer the society of the ladies to that of the Monte players. These are generally foreigners and chiefly English.

“On the third night of the fête, C——n and I having left the ball-room about ten o'clock, walked out in the direction of the copper-tables which filled the middle of the square, and were covered with awnings. It is a sight, that once seen, can never be forgotten. Nothing but the pencil of Hogarth or the pen of Boz could do justice to the various groups there assembled. It was a gambling fête champêtre, conducted on the most liberal scale.

“On each table were great mountains of copper, with an occasional sprinkling of silver. There was a profusion of evergreens, small tin lamps dripping with oil, and sloping tallow candles shedding grease upon the board. Little ragged boys, acting as waiters, were busily engaged in handing round pulque and chia in cracked tumblers. There was moreover an agreeable tinkling produced from several guitars, and even the bankers condescended to amuse their guests with soothing strains. The general dress of the company consisted of a single blanket, gracefully disposed in folds about the person, so as to show various glimpses of a bronze skin. Generally speaking, however, the head was uncovered, or covered only with its native thatching of long, bushy, tangled black hair.

“This might be out of compliment to the ladies, of whom there were several, and who ought in politeness to have been mentioned first. Nothing could be simpler than their costume, consisting of a very dirty and extremely torn chemise, with short sleeves, a shorter petticoat, and a pair of shoes, generally of dirty satin; also a rebozo, and the long hair hanging down as Eve's golden locks may have done in Paradise.

“There was neither fighting, nor swearing, nor high words. I doubt whether there be as much decorum at Crockford's; indeed, they were scrupulously polite to each other. At one table, the banker was an enormously fat gentleman, one half of whose head was bound up with a dirty white handkerchief, over which a torn piece of hat was stuck, very much to one side. He had a most roguish eye, and a smile of inviting benignity on his dirty countenance. In one hand he held and tingled a guitar, while he most ingeniously swept in the copper with the other. By his side sat two wretched looking women, with long matted hair, their elbows on the table, and their great eyes fixed upon the game with an expression of the most intense anxiety. At another, the *banker* was a pretty

little Indian woman, rather clean, comparatively speaking, and who appeared to be doing business smartly. A man stood, near her, leaning against one of the poles that supported the awning, who attracted all our attention. He was enveloped in a torn blanket, his head uncovered, and his feet bare; and was glaring upon the table with his great, dark, haggard, looking eyes, his brown face livid, and his expression bordering on despair. It needed no one to tell us that on the table was his last stake. What will such a man do but go upon the road?

“While ‘high life below stairs,’ is thus enacting, and these people are courting fortune in the fresh air, the gentlemanly gamblers are seated before the green cloth-covered tables, with the gravity besitting so many cabinet councils; but without their mystery, for doors and windows are thrown open, and both ladies and gentlemen may pass in and out, and look on at the game, if they please. The heaps of ounces look temptingly; and make it appear a true El Dorado.

“The ladies who have collected ounces and made purses, send their friends and admirers to the tables to try their luck for them; and in some of the inferior houses, the Señoras of a lower class occasionally try their fortune for themselves.

“At the tables, few words are spoken. The heaps of gold change masters, but the masters do not change countenance. I saw but one person who looked a little out of humour, and he was a foreigner. The rich man adds to his store, and the poor man becomes a beggar. He is ruined, but ‘makes no sign.’

“One reason for this tranquillity, is the *habit* of gambling, in which they have indulged from childhood, and which has taught them that neither high words nor violence will restore a single dollar once fairly lost; and in point of fairness, everything is carried on with the strictest honour, as among gamblers of high degree.

“An anecdote was related to us this morning, by a member of the cabinet, a striking one amongst the innumerable instances of Fortune’s caprices. A very rich Spaniard, proprietor of several haciendas, attended the fête at San Augustin, and having won three thousand ounces, ordered the money to be carried in sacks to his carriage, and prepared to return to Mexico along with his wife. His carriage was just setting off, when a friend of his came out of an adjoining house, and requested him to stay to breakfast, to which he agreed. After breakfast, there being a Monte table in the house, at which some of his acquaintances were playing, he put down two ounces, and lost. He continued playing and losing, until he had lost his three thousand ounces, which were sent for and transferred to the winners. He still continued playing with a terrible infatuation, till he had lost his whole fortune. He went on blindly, staking one hacienda after another, and property of all sorts, until the sun, which had risen upon him a rich and prosperous man, set, leaving him a beggar! It is said that he bore this extraordinary and sudden reverse with the utmost equanimity. He left a son, whom we have seen at San Augustin, where he earns his livelihood as *croupier* at the gambling tables.”

The evil tendency of this vice is everywhere the same; it is sure to beget poverty, ruin, and desperation, which naturally lead to the commission of crime; and hence it is that every department in Mexico is infested with robbers, who plunder with impunity, even within sight of the capital; and men who have held high offices under the government, and who have distinguished themselves in the army, have been equally distinguished *on the road*.

Travellers in Mexico find it exceedingly difficult to avoid robbers, and generally travel prepared to encounter them. It not unfrequently happens that inn-keepers and stage drivers are associated with robbers; the former rendering valuable service by the information they are enabled to impart, and the latter by assisting in the consummation of the robbery. To show the impunity with which robberies are committed, it is only necessary to state the fact that a great many robberies have been committed within a few hundred yards of the gates

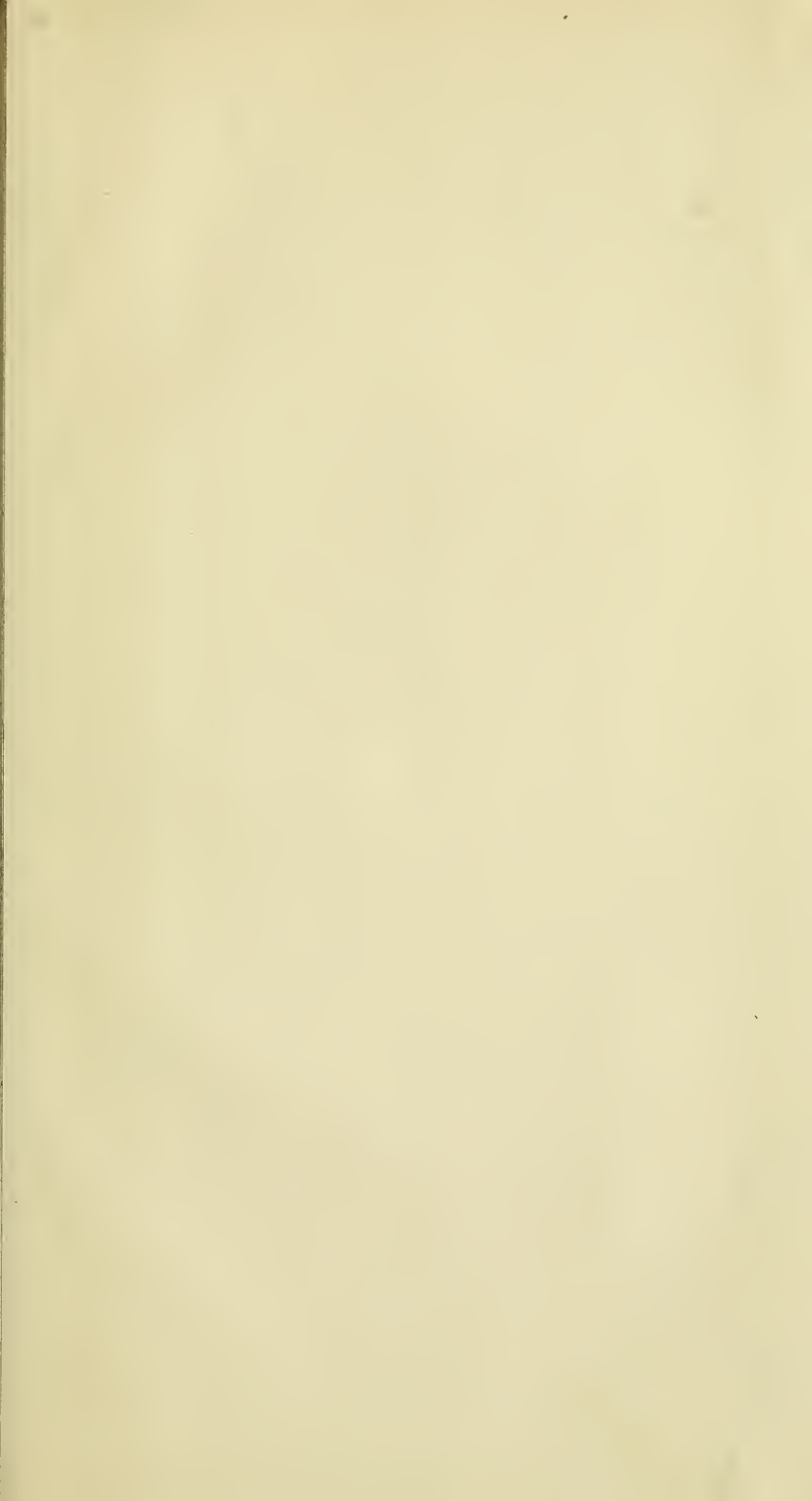
of the city of Puebla. A band of a dozen men, armed, with their faces masked, usually stood waiting in the early dawn, for the diligence. If there were armed foreigners in the coach, they would look in, consult a moment, and then ride off. If the passengers were unarmed, and the boot of the vehicle looked heavy and tempting, the result was the perfect sacking of the whole company. Their persons were first robbed and stripped as they descended from the door; they were then made to lie down with their mouths on the ground while their trunks were rifled. The prima donna of the opera in Mexico, lost \$6000 in doubloons and jewels at this very spot, notwithstanding a guard had been promised by the authorities, and *paid for*.

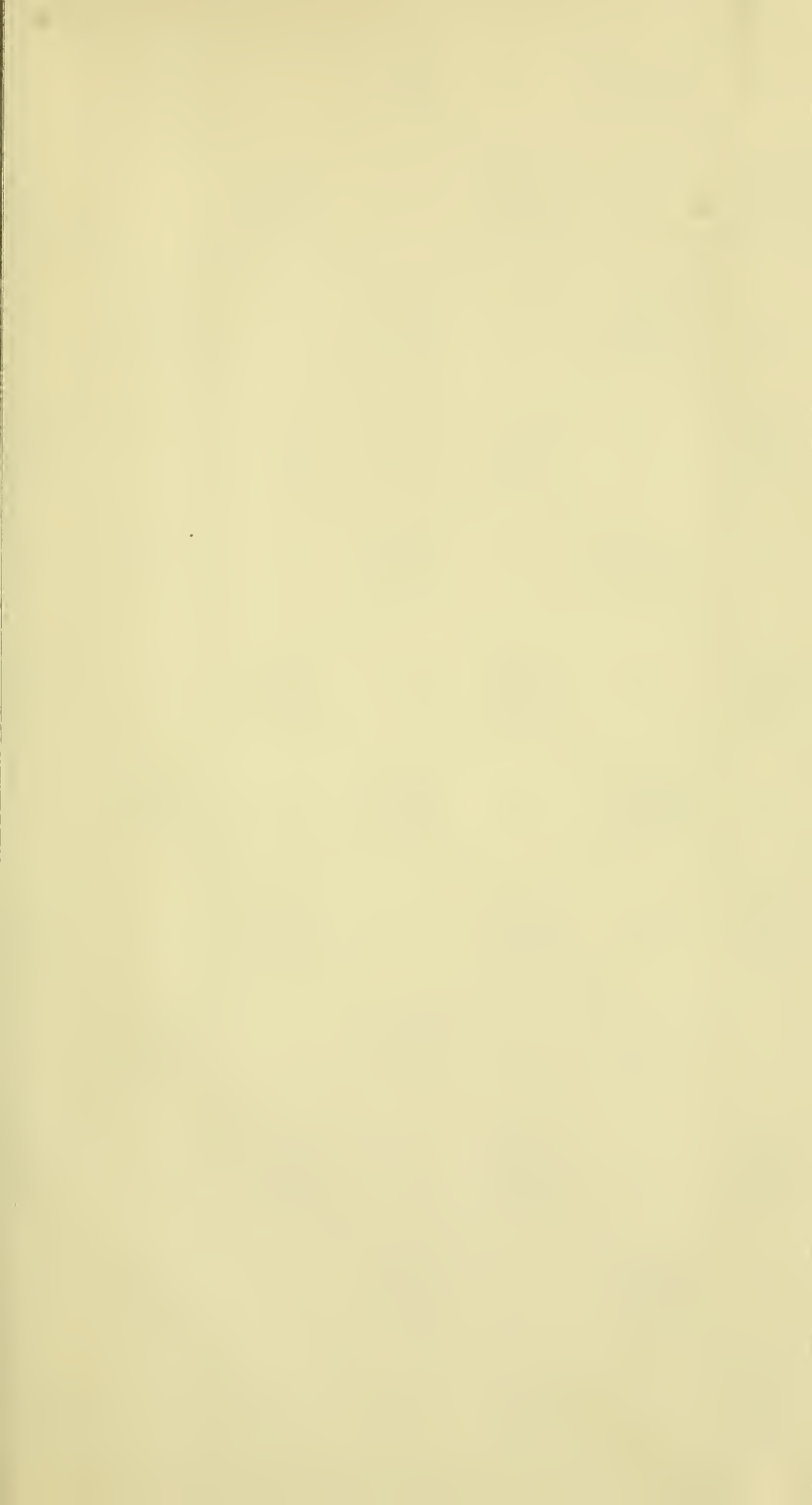
Legend of the Virgin of Guadalupe.

Among the many popular superstitions of the Mexican people, is the universal belief in the following legend of the Virgin of Guadalupe, as given by the illustrious Cardinal de Lorenzono, Archbishop of Mexico, in a sermon preached by him in the Collegiate church, in 1760.

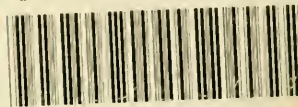
"In the year 1531, ten years and four months after the conquest of Mexico, the Holy Virgin of Guadalupe appeared on the mountain of Tepeyac. The matter occurred thus: On the 9th of December of that year the adventurous Indian, Juan Diego, a native of Quatititlan, went to Thaltelolco to study the Christian doctrine, inasmuch as it was there taught by certain holy Franciscan monks. Passing by the mountain, the Most Holy Virgin appeared, and told him to go, in her name, to the illustrious Bishop Don Francisco Juan de Zumarraga, and say that she desired him to come and worship on that spot. On the 10th of the same month Juan Diego returned to the mountain, and the Holy Virgin again appeared, asking him the result of his commission. Diego replied, that notwithstanding his efforts, he could not obtain admission to the Bishop. Then, the Virgin answered, 'Return, and tell him that I, Mary the Mother of God, have sent you!' Juan Diego carefully executed the order, but the Señor Zumarraga refused him credence: his only reply being, that he must have some token to satisfy him of the verity of the annunciation. Again Juan Diego returned to the mountain with this message of the Bishop, and delivered it to the Holy Virgin, who appeared to him on the 12th of December *for the third time*. She ordered him then to ascend the mountain of Tepeyac, *cut roses* and bring them to her. The humble and happy messenger went, notwithstanding he knew full well that on the mountain there were not only no roses, but no vegetation of any kind. Nevertheless, *he found the flowers* and brought them to Mary! She threw them in the *tilma* (a part of Indian dress) and said to him, 'Return once more to the Bishop, and tell him that these flowers are the credentials of your mission.' Accordingly, Juan Diego immediately departed for the episcopal residence, which, it is said, was then in the house called the Hospital del Amor de Dios; and when he found himself in the presence of the prelate, he unfolded his *tilma* to present the roses, *when lo! there appeared on the rude garment that blessed picture of the Virgin*, which now after centuries still exists, without having suffered the slightest injury! Then the illustrious Bishop took the image and placed it in his oratory. It is now in this Collegiate church. The Virgin appeared again, a fourth time, to the Indian. She then restored to health his uncle, named Juan Bernardino, and told Diego—'*The image on thy tilma I wish called the Virgin of Guadalupe!*'"

Such is the story of the sacred portrait, the original of which presides over the destinies of Mexico, whose name "*Maria de Guadalupe*," is given to half the females of the Republic, and whose shrine is one of the wealthiest in the world. A copy of this picture is hung in every house in Mexico, and is cherished as a household god.





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